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THE  
CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For the Month of *October*, 1763.

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ARTICLE I.

*Ecclesiastical Law.* By Richard Burn, L.L.D. *Vicar of Orton, in the County of Westmoreland. In Two Volumes. 4to. Pr. 2l. 2s. in Boards.* Millar. (Concluded.)

THE personal, as well as literary, intrepidity which Dr. Burn displays in the accurate and arduous work now before us, is as uncommon as the great perspicuity of method, and the compass of knowledge with which it is executed. He has ventured to declare war against those prejudices which, for centuries, fettered the minds of the English clergy, and soured their dispositions into a disagreement with the civil power. The reader, from the doctor's work, will easily perceive that the principles of religious liberty (we mean with regard to the discipline and œconomy of the church) existed long before the Reformation, as those of civil liberty did before the Revolution. If the same reader throws his eye back, this work will inform him, that even Magna Charta itself was only an instrument declaratory of those rights to which Englishmen were intitled before and after what is called the Norman Conquest. Those three bright periods, therefore, of freedom civil and religious, are not to be considered as the epochas which gave rise to those inestimable blessings, but as periods in which they were explained and settled.

We cannot help regretting our being, in justice to the doctor, obliged to make the foregoing observations. His work combats with inveterate habits, which very possibly may raise it some enemies; but we will venture to say, that they must be enemies, at the same time, to the clearest conviction, upon the most irrefragable evidence; and that this performance must be the standard to which even its enemies must resort in all

matters concerning ecclesiastical law.—But we shall now proceed in our review.

In the article of Curates, the author gives us a dissertation concerning the original of curates in chapels of ease, and likewise of perpetual curacies. In the progress of the article we meet with many instructive cases, which put the office of curates in a very new light; and we learn, upon the whole, that scarcely a curate in England, of an augmented chapel, is legally qualified. Under the head of Deans and Chapters, we have a summary of ecclesiastical law relating to those reverend bodies, which, we will venture to say, must be instructive to those who are the best acquainted with the most abstruse parts of ecclesiastical antiquities; and, by the doctor's illustrations, and the cases he has quoted, the bounds and properties of those institutions, as they now stand, become intelligible and reconcileable to civil principles.

If the reader wants a relaxation from the above severe studies, he will find it in the next article of Defamation, where he may gather some of the choicest flowers in the English language; to which we must refer him. The article of Dissenters is divided into two heads; the first treats very fully concerning the laws against Dissenters, and the second shews how far they are mitigated by the act of toleration, or other acts. The doctor, under the first head, amongst various other cases, has very candidly and fully stated that of Allen Evans Esq. and the chamberlain of London, July 5, 1762. The case, which is curious (and probably the determination upon it will be for ever decisive) is as follows.

An action was brought in the sheriff's court, upon a by-law, for the penalty of 600*l.* against the defendant Allen Evans, for refusing to serve the office of sheriff of London. The defendant pleaded this statute, that no person shall be chosen into such office, who shall not, within one year next before, have taken the sacrament according to the rites of the church of England; and in default thereof, every such choice is declared to be void. The defendant further pleads the statute of 1 *W. c.* 18. for exempting protestant dissenters from penalties contained in former acts. Then the plea avers, that the sheriffs of London are officers who before the 13 *C.* 2. were persons bearing such office; that the defendant was and still is a protestant dissenter from the church of England, a person of a scrupulous conscience in the exercise of religion, and during all that time has and still does frequent the congregations of religious worship amongst protestant dissenters. The defendant then states, that he took the oaths and subscribed the declaration, according to the act of toleration, in the year 1751, at the session held for the county of Middlesex; and that his taking the oaths was duly registered

in the court of sessions : That he had not within one year before the supposed election taken the sacrament of the lord's supper according to the rites of the church of England, nor has he at any time since done it, nor can he in conscience take the same, nor was he bound to take the same since May 1751 : That of these premises the lord mayor aldermen and citizens had notice ; and that by reason thereof, and of the act of parliament made for governing corporations, the mayor aldermen and citizens assembled in July 1745 and the livery were prohibited from electing, and had no power to elect him sheriff ; that he was disabled from, and incapable of being elected ; and that the supposed election of him was void.——To this plea, the plaintiff replied, that by the statute of the 5 G. c. 6. s. 3. it is enacted, that no person chosen into such office shall be removed or otherwise prosecuted, for omission of taking the sacrament, nor shall any incapacity or disability be incurred by reason of the same (unless he be removed, or prosecution commenced, within six months).——To this replication the defendant demurred ; and the plaintiff joined in demurrer.——And judgment was given for the plaintiff, in the sheriff's court.

' The defendant sued a writ of error, before the mayor and sheriffs, in the court of the Hustings : And the judgment was there affirmed.

' A writ of error of this judgment giving in the Hustings was brought before the commissioners of St. Martin's le Grand. The judges named in the commission were the chief baron Parker, Foster, Bathurst, and Wilmot. The plaintiff in the original action pleaded, *In nullo est erratum*. The cause was argued three several times, by the most eminent council in the profession. The council for the defendant objected to the declaration, because the plaintiff had not stated therein, that the city of London had any right either by charter or prescription, to elect the defendant sheriff : And the by-law being made to regulate this franchise, it ought to appear on the face of the declaration, that they are intitled to the franchise ; which can only be by charter or prescription. But the judges being unanimous in their opinion upon the real merits of this cause, declined giving any opinion upon this point, though they all seemed to think there was great weight in it.'

The doctor then proceeds to give the opinions of Mr. Justice Foster, and Mr. Justice Wilmot, with whom the other two judges of the court of King's-bench agreed, in reversing the judgment, by declaring the election a nullity. We are sorry that we have not room to entertain our readers with the curious arguments laid down in this celebrated case. The article of holidays, marriages, and monasteries, are entertaining, full, and



instructive. That of Monasteries is, perhaps, the most complete, and the most succinct of any thing upon that head which has appeared in the English language. But the reader is not to expect that we are to touch upon those and many other important particulars that occur in every page of this work. The head of Ordination, however, has been so well laboured by the doctor, that it claims peculiar attention. It is divided into thirteen articles, 1. Of the order of priests and deacons in the church. 2. Of the form of ordaining priests and deacons, annexed to the book of Common Prayer. 3. Of the time and place for ordination. 4. Of the qualification and examination of persons to be ordained. 5. Of oaths and subscriptions previous to the ordination. 6. Form and manner of ordaining deacons. 7. Form and manner of ordaining priests. 8. Fees for ordination. 9. Simonical promotion to orders. 10. General office of deacons. 11. General office of priests. 12. Exhibiting letters or orders. 13. Archbishop Wake's directions to the bishops of his province, in relation to orders. All these heads are discussed with great freedom, and perhaps certain high fliers may think that the author has taken some liberties. The article of Privileges and Restraints of the clergy, amongst many other particulars of more importance, treats of their apparel, and the author very judiciously observes, that, notwithstanding a canonical habit is enjoined by the canons of the church, yet the general rule is, in a matter of such fluctuation, that clergymen shall appear in habit and dress such as shall comport with gravity and decency, without effeminacy or affectation. Here it cannot be displeasing to our reader to have from a cotemporary authority, an account of the dress of clerical fops, in the reign of Edward the third, as we find it in a constitution of archbishop Stratford, in 1343.

‘ The outward habit often shews the inward disposition ; and though the behaviour of the clergy ought to be the instruction of the laity, yet the prevailing excesses of the clergy, as to tonsure, garments, and trappings, give abominable scandal to the people ; because such as have dignities, parsonages, honourable prebends, and benefices with cure, and even men in holy orders, scorn the tonsure, (which is the mark of perfection, and of the heavenly kingdom), and distinguish themselves with hair hanging down to their shoulders, in an effeminate manner ; and apparel themselves like soldiers rather than clerks, with an upper jump remarkably short, with excessive wide or long sleeves, not covering the elbows, but hanging down ; their hair curled and powdered, and caps with tippets of a wonderful length ; with long beards ; and rings on their fingers ; girt with girdles exceeding large and costly, having purses enamelled with figures and various



rious sculptures gilt, hanging with knives (like swords) in open view ; their shoes chequerred with red and green, exceeding long, and variously indented ; with croppers to their saddles, and horns hanging at the necks of their horses ; and cloaks furred on the edges, contrary to the canonical sanctions, so that there is no distinction between clerks and laicks, which rendereth them unworthy of the privilege of their order.

Under the same head it is provided by the 74th canon of the canons in the year 1603, that ‘ archbishops and bishops shall use the accustomed apparel of their degrees : deans, masters of colleges, archdeacons, and prebendaries in cathedral and collegiate churches (being priests or deacons), doctors in divinity, law, and physic, bachelors in divinity, masters of arts, and bachelors of law, having any ecclesiastical living, shall usually wear gowns with standing collars and sleeves strait at the hands, or wide sleeves, as is used in the universities, with hoods or tippets of silk or sarcenet, and square caps. And all other ministers shall also usually wear the like apparel as is aforesaid, except tippets only. And all the said ecclesiastical persons above-mentioned shall usually wear in their journies cloaks with sleeves, commonly called priests cloaks, with guards, welts, long buttons, or cuts. And no ecclesiastical person shall wear any coife or wrought night cap, but only plain night caps of black silk, satin, or velvet. In private houses, and in their studies, the said persons ecclesiastical may use any comely and scholarlike apparel, provided that it be not cut or pinkt, and in public not to go in their doublet and hose, without coats or cassocks. And not to wear any light coloured stockings. Poor beneficed men and curates (not being able to provide themselves long gowns) may go in short gowns, of the fashion aforesaid.’

Dr. Burn very justly observes, with regard to bands, which now form an indispensable part of orthodox clerical dress, that they are of puritanical original, and were introduced upon the downfall of episcopacy ; but, like other peculiar habits both in the church and the law, continue to be retained by the wearers to avoid the imputation of levity, and to give them a venerable air. Though by the same canons all vicious excesses are prohibited to ecclesiastical persons, particularly their resorting to any taverns or ale-houses, and their boarding and lodging in such places ; yet we cannot help perceiving that those prohibitions admitted of many softening, which, in process of time, seem to have implied so many nullities as to their effects. It appears, for instance, that clergymen might have resorted to taverns and ale-houses for their honest necessities ; and my lord Coke was of opinion, that clergymen may use reasonable recreations, to make them fitter for the performance of their duty

and office. In like manner, the canon law prohibited clergymen from hunting, yet the common law gave them leave to make use of that recreation; and we learn from the doctor, that after decease of every archbishop and bishop (amongst other things), the king, time out of mind, hath had his kennel of hounds. The doctor, perhaps, would have stept a little too far out of his way, had he brought instances of sporting clergymen since the reformation; for, not to mention the case of archbishop Abbot, it is well known that archbishop Juxon kept the best pack of hounds in England, and was the best sportsman of his time, while the independents and sectaries were tearing his order in pieces. The paragraph which closes this head of Privileges and Restraints of the clergy, is in all respects so answerable to the character of a rational moderate divine, and of a free independent Englishman, that every reader of the least spirit must feel it, and thank us for quoting it.

‘After all, these distinctions of the clergy are shadows rather than substance; being most of them about matters which are obsolete, and of no significance. The Restraints, as to the scope and purport of them, are such as the clergy for the most part would chuse to put upon themselves: and the Privileges, such as they are, seem to be scarcely worth claiming; and some of them one would almost imagine to have been calculated to bring a disgrace upon the clergy, rather than to be of any real benefit to them; for why should a clergyman be protected from paying his just debts more than any other person, or saved from punishment for a crime for which another person ought to be hanged? And it is hoped, there hath not been one instance, of a clergyman having needed to claim the privilege of his order a second time, for a crime for which a layman by the laws of his country should suffer death.’

The articles of Public-worship, Schools, and Simony, cannot be too carefully perused by every English subject, who wants to form a clear and adequate judgment of those important points, hitherto but little understood, and imperfectly explained. But there is not, perhaps, an article in this work in which the doctor has distinguished himself more than in that of Supremacy, that bone of contention which has been productive of so many calamities to this country; and it is therefore just that we should give the reader some idea of it, not in the way of quotation, because that would be endless, but of recapitulation.

According to our author, who quotes lord chief justices Coke, Hale, and other great luminaries of the law, there is in the crown of England an inherent supremacy, which has at all times existed, independently of any power either civil or ecclesiastical.



astical. This supremacy was declared and insisted upon by the parliament of England, even in the times of popery, particularly in the 16th of Richard the 2d, where it is asserted by the parliament, that the crown of England has been so free at all times, that it hath been in no earthly subjection. The statute of the 24th of Henry VIII. is no other than declaratory of this fundamental constitution of the realm of England, which is an empire, and declares the king's supremacy, in causes spiritual by judges of the spirituality, and in causes temporal by temporal judges. The same principle is further enforced by a statute of the 25th of the same reign, which declares the realm of England to be subject to no foreign prince, potentate, nor prelate. Here we cannot help observing from the acts, quoted by our author, that this supremacy, independent as it is, is rendered conformable to the laws of the land, and they are reciprocally supports to each other. Even the canons of the church invest the monarchs of England only with that salutary supremacy that is exercised for the good of their people; and this excellent doctrine is confirmed by many pregnant quotations from acts of parliament which passed in times which, in other respects, were not always the most favourable to public liberty.

Dr. Burn, after establishing this great and fundamental principle, which we may pronounce to be co-genial to the English constitution, proceeds to give an account of the rise of his majesty's stile and title; the penalty annexed to the denial of his supremacy, and to that of asserting that of the pope; and then, after giving a copy of the oath of supremacy, he proceeds to examine the manner in which that important point was limited and defined by the act of settlement at the revolution. Here he strikes out some observations, founded not only in civil but natural liberty (if we can admit there is any difference between them) to which, we are persuaded, every true Briton must subscribe, and which, as we apprehend, contain the true characteristics of the author's spirit and erudition.

The truth is, that after the abolition of the papal power, there was no branch of sovereignty with which the princes of this realm, for above a century after the reformation, were more delighted than that of being the supreme head of the church: imagining (as it seemeth) that all that power which the pope claimed, and exercised (so far as he was able), was by the statutes abrogating the papal authority annexed to the imperial crown of this realm: not attending to the necessary distinction, that it was not that exorbitant lawless power which the pope usurped, that was thereby become vested in them; but only that the ancient legal authority and jurisdiction of the kings of England in matters ecclesiastical, which the pope had



endeavoured to wrest out of their hands, was reasserted and vindicated. The pope arrogated to himself a jurisdiction, superior not only to his own canon law, but to the municipal laws of kingdoms. And those princes of this realm above mentioned seem to have considered themselves plainly as popes in their own dominions. Hence one reason, why a reformation of the ecclesiastical laws was never effected, seemeth to have been, because it conduced more to the advancement of the supremacy to retain the church in an unsettled state, and consequently more dependent on the sovereign will of the prince. Hence became established the office of lord vicegerent in causes ecclesiastical; and after that, the high commission court; and last of all the dispensing power, or a power of dispensing with or suspending the execution of laws at the prince's pleasure. Therefore, to remove these grievances, these acts prescribed the just boundaries of the prerogative, both ecclesiastical and civil, and established the rights both of prince and people, upon the firmest and surest foundation, namely, the known law of the land; and thereby rendered the name of an English monarch respectable among the princes of the earth. A king ruling by the established laws of his kingdom, that is, with an extensive power of doing right, and an utter inability of doing wrong, is the perfection of the human nature, and the glory of the divine; and renders kings, in a most emphatical sense, god's vicegerents.

‘ From which premises may be deduced also the genuine cause, why the civil and canon laws have received so much check and discouragement from time to time within this kingdom. They are founded upon the principles of arbitrary power.

‘ The civil law is said to be the common municipal law of all the arbitrary states of Europe (modified only according to the different circumstances of each government); and those princes of this realm who have most affected absolute sovereignty, have been proportionable encouragers of the civil law. The canon law hath the same lineaments and features; being framed to render the pope in the church what the emperor was in the state. And it must be owned, they are both perhaps more for the ease of the governors, but not so convenient for the governed.

‘ Particularly, as to the enacting part; They owe their very existence to the sovereign will of the supreme governor; and consequently, what is law to day, may not be law to morrow; for the same which enacteth may repeal.—*For such is our will*——is a harsh and grating sound to an English ear; being the sullen voice of insolence and wanton power. How much more humane is that declaration——*Be it enacted by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual*

*spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same.*

‘ Again, as to the executive part, especially with respect to criminal prosecutions——A person accused in the dark; witnesses not confronted with the party face to face; the cruel oath *ex officio*, whereby a man is compelled to accuse himself; (not to mention the diabolical rack and torture;) and the whole determined at last by the sole decision of the judge, who must needs be oftentimes an entire stranger to the parties; are disparagements of those laws, which will always obstruct their progress in a land of liberty. How much more mild and gentle is that law, which is the birthright of every Englishman, however otherwise destitute and friendless, whereby he shall not be called upon to answer for any crime he is charged withal, but upon the oaths of at least twelve men of considerable rank and fortune within the county in which the offence is supposed to have been committed, if they shall see probable cause for further inquiry; and afterwards, shall not be condemned, but by the unanimous suffrage of other twelve men, his neighbours and equals in degree and station of life, upon their oaths likewise; and at the same time he hath a right to object to any one who is summoned to try him for his offence, if he hath a reasonable cause of exception.——The one is the law of tyrants; the other of freemen, and may it ever prosper in the British soil.’

After all, we cannot help acknowledging, that partial quotations from this work convey a seeming imputation as if the whole of it was not equally laboured, important, and accurate, which we sincerely declare it to be. We have only to add, that the university of Oxford, of which the doctor was a member, in testimony of his great abilities, conferred upon him the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws.

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ART. II. *An History of the Military Transactions of the British Nation in Indostan, from the Year 1745. To which is prefixed a Dissertation on the Establishments made by Mahomedan Conquerors in Indostan.* 4to. Pr. 18s. sewed. Nourse.

**T**HIS author has the advantage of being well acquainted with the subject he treats of, and therefore his narrative is pleasing and perspicuous: at the same time it must be acknowledged, that, before this history appeared, we seem to have been entirely in the dark, with regard to the great and important events it contains.

In the Introduction there is little either uncommon or interesting, till about the year 1719 to 1739, when the famous expedition



expedition of Thamas Kouli Khan took place ; and that period, late as it is, is as uncertain as any of the ancient dynasties of Egypt. We know, however, enough of it to give us an horror at Indostan politics. Two brothers, Abdallah Khan and Hossan Ally Khan, were powerful enough to make and depose five emperors of Indostan ; and four of those emperors reigned in the space of four months. At last Hossan Ally Khan was assassinated by the courtiers, to please the emperor Mahomed Schah, who defeated the other brother Abdallah. This Mahomed Schah degenerated into an indolent voluptuous tyrant, who gave himself up to his favourites. These disobliged old Nizam-al-Muluck, who had been bred up in the court of Aurengzebe, and who, being vice-roy of the southern provinces, was in possession of near a fourth of the empire, and almost independent of the emperor. Nizam's resentment went so far, that he invited Thamas Kouli Khan to invade Indostan, which he did, and carried off above seventy millions sterling, after having first dethroned, and then re-inthroned, Mahomed Schah.

The third and last section of this Introduction gives a general view of the constitution and population of Indostan, which is very judiciously handled, and well worth the reader's perusal. The Mahomedans, who are called Moors, of Indostan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about an hundred millions. Above half the empire is subject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their descent from the old princes of India, and exercise all rights of sovereignty, only paying a tribute to the great mogul, and observing the treaties by which their ancestors recognized his superiority. In other respects, the government of Indostan is full of wise checks upon the overgrown greatness of any subject ; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the administration), the indolence and barbarity of the moguls or emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitless.

The first book of the history treats of the war of Coromandel, and introduces us to the knowledge of the two great denominations of governors under the emperor, that of Soubahdar, or Soubah, and that of Navab, or Nabob ; to which it is necessary the reader should attend. A soubah signifies a province, and most of the countries in the peninsula of India, were comprized under one soubah, or viceroyalty, called from its situation, the Decan, or South. Under those soubahs are the nabobs, or deputies, who are likewise Mahomedans, and ought to receive their commission from the court of Dehli ; but the nabobs must account to the soubah, and attend him within his viceroyalty, though the power of both was originally so well tempered, that it was almost impracticable for either of them



to become independent of the emperor, till the whole system of their government was ruined, about fifty years ago, especially, after the invasion of Kouli Khan. The nabobship of the Carnatic, or Arcot, was a very considerable government, depending on the soubah of Decan, and, in the year 1710, was held by one Sadatulla. Having no sons, he adopted his brother's two sons. To the eldest Doast ally, he left the nabobship, and to the younger, Boker-ally, the government of Velore, appointing Gulam Haffain, his favourite wife's nephew, to be duan, or first minister, to the future nabob. Sadatulla died in 1730, but the soubah Nizam-al-Muluck opposed, at Dehli, Doast-ally's confirmation in his high office. In 1736, a kind of vacancy happening in the throne of Tritchanopoly, Doast-ally sent his son Subder-ally, and his first minister, Chunda-saheb, to take possession of it, which the latter did in a most treacherous manner, and at the same time formed very dangerous connections with the French governor of Pondicherry, where he resided for some time. Being left governor of Tritchanopoly by Subder-ally, the latter soon saw his error in trusting a man of Chunda-saheb's ambition with so important a government; but found himself unable to dispossess him. Nizam-al-Muluk would have interposed, and had both power and inclination to have driven Doast-ally and his family, of which Chunda-saheb was one, from all their possessions; but, though the invasion of India by Kouli Khan, which happened about that time, diverted him, he gave the Morattoes, a people lying between Bombay and Gol-Kondah, and the most warlike people of Indostan, leave to attack Doast-ally's dominions. Accordingly, in May 1740, the Morattoes, to the number of 100,000, invaded the province of Arcot, and killed Doast-ally, with his son Haffan-ally. This great defeat obliged Subder-ally to fly to Velore, while Chunda-saheb, who was at the head of a good army, continued to fortify himself at Tritchanopoly. Soon after Subder-ally purchased his peace of the Morattoes, was acknowledged nabob of Arcot, and received the homage of Chunda-saheb for Tritchanopoly, where the latter was now become too powerful for a feudatory. By a private article with the Morattoes, Subder-ally had given them leave to conquer the kingdom of Tritchanopoly from Chunda-saheb, who, after suffering several defeats, and obstinately defending his capital for three months, on the 26th of March, 1741, was obliged to deliver it up to Morari-row, a Moratto general, who took possession of it with 14,000 of their best troops. As to Chunda-saheb, he was kept a close prisoner in the country of the Morattoes, and Subder-ally, after trusting the English at Madras with his family and best effects, diverted Nizam-al-Muluk's resentment from falling upon him, by the most specious pretences. In the mean

mean while, Mortiz-ally, brother-in-law to Subder-ally, and governor of Velore, quarrelled with that nabob about money-affairs, and formed a conspiracy against him, which ended in the nabob's murder. It was no difficult matter for a man of Mortiz-ally's artful turn, and immense riches, to purchase his pardon from so venal a set of men as the Indian soldiers of all kinds are, and he was even proclaimed nabob of the Carnatic, where he entered Arcot in triumph.

The friends and family of Subder-ally, being favoured by the English, soon drove Mortiz-ally, who was a coward, with disgrace, out of his ill-acquired dominion, and Seid Mahomed, Subder-ally's infant son, then residing at Madras, was proclaimed nabob of Arcot. Nizam-al-Muluk, who was then in the height of his power, having procured for his son, Ghazi-o'din, the post of captain general of the mogul's armies, at the head of 80,000 horse and 200,000 foot, entered the province of Arcot, to reduce it to his obedience. There every thing ply'd before his power; the young nabob performed his homage, and was taken under his protection; but he appointed Coja Abdulla Khan to be nabob of Arcot, and all its dependencies; and he obliged Morari-row to evacuate Tritchanopoly. In 1744 Coja Abdulla was found dead in his bed, thought to have been poisoned by his successor An'war-adean Khan.

This new nabob was the son of a religious Mahomedan, who had been advanced by Aurengzebe, and he had himself met with considerable preferments; but falling in arrears to the mogul's court, he had taken refuge under Ghazi-o'din, whose son Nizam-al-Muluk, as we have seen, raised him to the great post of nabob of Arcot. The preference of a stranger to the line of Sudatulla, disgusted the inhabitants of the Carnatic so greatly, that Nizam-al-Muluk gave out that he intended to restore Subder-ally's son to that nabobship, as soon as he should be of age; but at the same time very improperly put him under the tuition of An'war-adean, who conducted him with great state to Arcot, where he was murdered by thirteen Pitan soldiers, a Mahomedan race, who are the ruffians of the Indostan armies. The suspicion of this murder fell immediately upon Mortiz-ally, who was at Arcot at the time, and An'war-adean, the regent nabob, who, probably, had concerted it together. Be this as it will, they mutually accused each other of Seid Mahomed's murder; but An'war-adean found means to convince Nizam-al-Muluk of his innocence, and received from him another commission to be governor of the Carnatic.

Such is the substance of the curious, and, we believe, authentic, account given by this author of the Indostan affairs, when the war, in 1743, broke out between Great Britain and France.

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The public of England are so much strangers to the above particulars, that we have thought proper to lay them before our readers; but the same reason does not hold for our following this narrative out in all the various operations in which the English and French were concerned, in consequence of this state of affairs in the Carnatic. The natives there were highly disgusted with Au'war-adean's government, when Mr. Barnet's squadron of English men of war appeared on the Indian seas, interrupted the French commerce, and threatened destruction to Pondicherry itself. Dupleix, the French governor there, upon this, gained over An'war-adean Khan, who insisted upon a neutrality by land, between the French and the English. The public is apprized of what ensued, and of all the operations between the English and French fleets, which form no shining period in the British history, and a very black one in that of France, after the arrival of de la Bourdonnais, with a French squadron, upon the coast of Coromandel, in 1746. We shall therefore return to the history of this great empire, after the perfidious infraction of the capitulation of Madrafs, on the part of the French.

An'war-adean affected to be displeased with the French, for violating the neutrality, by the attack of Madrafs, which Dupleix, to appease him, promised to put into his hands. The nabob, however, finding he was trifled with, laid siege to the place, but the French artillery obliged Maphuze Khan, the nabob's son, who commanded the siege, to raise it with great loss, and to retire to Arcot; after which a Swiss, one Paradis, was by Dupleix made the French governor of Madrafs, and all the English, who could escape the infamous breach of the capitulation, retired to Fort St. David. There, the nabob furnished the company's officers with a body of troops under Maphuze Khan, and the English at Fort St. David were enabled to baffle all the French attempts to take it. The disappearance, however, of the English fleet, gave an opportunity for Dupleix to represent their affairs in India, as desperate, to the nabob, who readily believing him, concluded a treaty with Dupleix, and withdrew his troops from the protection of Fort St. David. About this time admiral Griffin and his squadron appeared on that coast, and in 1748, major Lawrence arrived at Fort St. David from England, with a commission to command all the East India company's forces in India. The public is no stranger to the favourable turn which the English East India company's affairs took after that gentleman's arrival there; and ample accounts have been published, some of them by authority, of admiral Byscawen's unsuccessful expedition against Pondicherry; for which reason we shall omit all but the mention of it;



it; though this author has placed the whole in a far more clear and intelligible light than is to be met with in any other account.

The peace of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, did not restore tranquility to the affairs of the French and the English in the East Indies. It is true, they were no longer principals in the war, but they ranged themselves under the opposite standards of the princes of the country. The English at Fort St. David undertook to restore one Soujohee, who, some time before, had been driven from the throne of Tanjore, which lies in the neighbourhood of Tritchanopoly, upon his promising to give up to them Devi-Cotah, and to pay all the expences of the war, if he succeeded. This proved a ridiculous expedition, for none of the inhabitants of Tanjore joined the pretended prince, and it was with difficulty that the little English army escaped destruction. Lieutenant, now lord, Clive, then served under major Lawrence, and had given many proofs of his resolution and military genius; and to him chiefly it was owing, that the English, after repeated efforts, at last, made themselves masters of the important fortress of Devi-Cotah. This conquest was attended with a peace between the English and the reigning king of Tanjore. But scenes of much greater importance now opened in Indostan. The inhabitants of the Carnatic, more and more dissatisfied with the nabob's administration, threw their eyes upon Chunda-Saheb, who still continued a close prisoner among the Morattoes, and who was a descendant of their former nabobs, to oppose him. This prince had deservedly acquired a great character in Indostan, and his wife and family remaining still at Pondicherry, Mr. Dupleix consulted how to render him instrumental to the aggrandizement of his own nation in Indostan. He therefore procured his releasment, and Chunda-Saheb soon saw himself at the head of 6000 men. By this time the Pitans had rebelled against the great mogul; and though they were subdued by his son Ahmed Schah, yet he himself, during the absence of his army, was murdered by the Omrahs. Though Ahmed succeeded his father, and revenged his death, yet he never could persuade Nizam al Muluck to repair to Dehli, and soon after, that soubah died, as some thought, by poison, though he was then 104 years of age.

Upon the death of this aged prince, the succession to the soubahship was disputed between his second son, Nazir-jing, and his grandson, who took the name of Murzafa-jing; and each endeavoured to support his claim by real or pretended deeds from Dehli in his favour. Nazir-jing, being in possession of the old soubah's vast treasures, forced his rival to continue upon the defensive, but the latter was joined by Chunda-Saheb, who recognized his right to the nabobship, and formed a scheme for  
his

his conquering Arcot from An'war-adean. They were joined by a detachment of the French, under M. D'Auteuil, sent them by Dupleix, from motives of insatiable ambition.—An'war-adean did not behold their progress with indifference; and having a fine army on foot, he resolved to defend the passes into the Carnatic; but neither he nor the English thought of associating with one another, though the French had made themselves parties with the other side. Murzafa-jing, who, on all occasions, acted as soubah, had now an army of 40,000 men, who were commanded by Chunda-Saheb; but his great strength lay in his French auxiliaries. The nabob was intrenched to great advantage, and more than once repulsed the French, who, to make a display of their military prowess, undertook the attack. At last they forced the intrenchment; the nabob's son was taken prisoner, and he himself, in attempting to advance on his elephant, to engage Chunda-Saheb hand-to-hand, was shot thro' the heart. This victory proved decisive in Murzafa-jing's favour, and, as soubah, he immediately appointed Chunda-Saheb nabob of the Carnatic, and of all the dominions that had been under the jurisdiction of An'war-adean.

The English repented, when it was too late, of their neutrality. They saw the soubah of Decan, the greatest soubah in India, and the most powerful of his deputies, the nabob of Arcot, gained by the French; but all they could do was to regain Madras, and to take possession of the neighbouring town of St. Thome, which Dupleix had an eye on. Murzafa-jing, for some time, met with no competitor in the soubahship, and, amongst others of his dependants, he forced Mortiz-ally, the governor of Vellore, to pay him 700,000 rupees. After this Chunda-Saheb presented Dupleix with the sovereignty of eighty-one villages in the neighbourhood of Pondicherry. Mahomed-ally, the second son of An'war-adean, escaped to his mother at Tritchanopoly, which was strong, and he now invited the English to assist him in defending it. The conjuncture was too delicate for the factory to embark in a war, which might be attended with the loss of all its possessions. They had imprudently consented to Mr. Boscawen's return to England, with the fleet and the troops, and Dupleix was daily urging Chunda-Saheb to march against Tritchanopoly. In this situation of affairs, the English ventured to send 150 Europeans to the assistance of Mahomed-ally; and fortunately for them, Chunda-Saheb, whose treasures, with those of Murzafa-jing, were now almost exhausted, instead of marching to Tritchanopoly, besieged Tanjore for the sake of the ransom which he knew that king would offer. The English auxiliaries, who had been sent to the assistance of Mahomed-ally, enabled the Tanjorines to make so  
vigorous



vigorous a resistance, that both the siege, and the negotiation attending it, gave Nizar-jing, who, by all accounts, was the true soubah, leisure to march against Murzafa-jing, at the head of 300,000 fighting men. Murzafa-jing had now been ruined, had not he and Chunda-Saheb been supported by Dupleix, who lent them 50,000 l. sterling, to pay their troops, and a fresh battalion of Europeans; yet even this proved but a short-lived relief. The English, to the number of 600, under major Lawrence and captain Dalton, joined Nazir-jing and Mahomed-ally, and the former complimented the major with an offer of making him his general in chief. After this, cannonadings and skirmishes of no great effect followed; but, in the mean while, a mutiny arose among the French officers, occasioned by Dupleix's tyranny, and d'Autreuil was forced to return with his troops to Pondicherry. This was a severe blow upon Murzafa-jing, who, after several negotiations, and obtaining very advantageous terms, put himself into the hands of Nazir-jing, by whom, in violation of all he had promised, and even of his oath on the alcoran, he was clapped into irons, while Chunda-Saheb escaped to Pondicherry.

Nazir-jing seemed now to be the unrivalled soubah of Decan; but his perfidy raised him enemies among his own generals, particularly those of the Pitans, and the nabobs of Cudapa, Canoul and Savanore, conspired against him. Dupleix came to the knowledge of this conspiracy, and had the address to make it answer his own purposes. Major Lawrence in vain solicited Nazir-jing to confirm the grant which had been made by Mahomed-ally, now nabob of Arcot, to the English East India company, of lands near Madras; but, finding himself trifled with, the major returned with his battalion to Fort St. David. A variety of operations succeeded between the soubah and the French, who made themselves masters of the important fortress of Gingee. This brought on a negotiation between Nazir-jing and Dupleix, which having no effect, the former, who had dismissed the greatest part of his army, again took the field with 60,000 foot, and 45,000 horse, 700 elephants, and 360 pieces of cannon. Dupleix now played a double game, for he entered into and completed an accommodation with Nazir-jing, who granted him all he demanded; and at the same time sent orders to the commandant of the French troops to attack Nazir-jing in his camp. This soubah could not believe that he was attacked by a power with whom he had just finished a treaty; and mounting his elephant, he sallied out, to give orders for repelling the assailants, when he was shot dead by the nabob of Cudapa, with whom Dupleix had all along kept up a correspondence. The soubah's death discouraged and dispersed his army; and Murzafa-jing was,



was in one instant delivered from his fetters, and reinstated in the soubahship, while Mohamed-ally escaped to his fortress at Trichanopoly. The oriental compliments, says our author, paid to the French on this occasion, were, for once, not destitute of truth; for, excepting the conquests of Cortez and Pizarro in the new world, never did so small a force decide the fate of so large a sovereignty. The dominions of the Great Mogul consist of twenty-two provinces, six of which, comprehending more than one-third of the empire, compose the soubahship of the Decan; the viceroy of which division is by a title still more emphatic than that of soubah, stiled in the language of the court, Nizam-al-Muluck, or protector of the empire: his jurisdiction extends in a line nearly north and south, from Brampore to Cape Comorin, and eastward from that line to the sea. Gol-Kondah, one of these provinces, comprehends what Europeans call the nabobships of Arcot, Canoul, Cudapa, Rajah-mandry, and Chicacol: so that there were under Nizam-al-Muluck thirty such nabobs, besides several powerful Indian kings, and many others of lesser note: the number of subjects in the Decan probably exceeds thirty-five millions.

To complete Murzafa-jing's good fortune, his title to the soubahship was acknowledged at the court of Dehli, while nothing could exceed the raptures of Dupleix and Chunda-saheb, at Pondicherry, upon their being informed of this almost miraculous revolution, little expecting the dreadful reverse of fortune the soubah was, in a few hours, to experience. The Pitan lords grew clamorous for the rewards which had been promised them by Murzafa-jing; but that soubah, relying on the friendship of the French, disregarded them, and repaired, in a most pompous manner, to Pondicherry, where he was received with joy by his mother, wife, and son. Next day the Pitan lords came to Pondicherry likewise; and by the intervention of Dupleix, an agreement was made between them and the soubah, who declared the Frenchman governor for the mogul of all the countries lying to the south of the river Kristna; that is, of a territory little less than France itself, besides conferring upon him other extravagant honours and presents, amounting to above 200,000 l. ready money, besides vast sums bestowed among the French soldiery. Murzafa-jing, after this, set out upon his return to Gol-Kondah, under an escort of 300 Europeans and 2000 Seapoys, (these were Indians trained up in the European manner of fighting) commanded by M. Buffy. In the soubah's march through the nabob of Cudapa's territories, a quarrel happened which produced a skirmish, and it soon appeared that the three conspiring nabobs had brought all their troops to the field, and taken possession of a strong pass, thro'

which the soubah was to proceed, with a design to cut him off and all his army. The soubah, by the assistance of the French artillery, routed the conspirators. The nabob of Savanore was killed, and that of Cudapa desperately wounded. The soubah, secure of victory, pursued the nabob of Canoul, who, finding he could not escape, made a stand, and directed his elephant against that of the soubah, who, by a signal, ordered his troops to leave them two to decide their fates. The combat proved fatal to the soubah, who lifting his sword to strike his enemy, was by the nabob pierced thro' the brain with a javelin. The nabob and his troops were immediately cut in pieces; but Dupleix beheld all his schemes, which were equally treacherous as ambitious, vanish into the air, at the very instant he thought he had secured their success. Notwithstanding this dreadful event Mr. Buffy set aside the infant son of Murzafa-jing, and raised to the soubahship his eldest brother Salabat-jing, whom he freed out of the fetters to which he had been confined with other two of his brothers, by the late soubah, who dreaded their rebellious practices. This nomination was approved of by Dupleix.

The third book of this volume introduces us to the history of those transactions, civil as well as military, in which the English and the French may be considered as the capital actors, though, properly speaking, they were originally called in only as auxiliaries to the contending Indian princes. Though the author has thrown many new lights upon this part, as well as the former, of his history, and though it contains many affecting interesting incidents, yet they are not so new to the public, and therefore we must refer the reader to the work itself. We have few European histories of the same kind which excel this in point of execution, and none that equal it in the surprising variety of its events. The author's style is truly historical, and his manner classical. He generally suffers actions to speak characters, and he paints them so justly, that we see them before our eyes in more lively colours than if they were drawn from conclusions of his own. As we understand that this work is to be continued, we shall have farther opportunities of doing it justice.

**ART. III.** *The Complete Compting-house Companion: or, Young Merchant and Tradesman's Sure Guide. To which is added, in the Introduction, A State of the new Duties on Wine, Cyder, and Perry, which are contained in no other Treatise on Trade. By a Society of Merchants and Tradesmen. 8vo. Pr. 7s. 6d. Johnston.*

**T**HE British commerce is so extensive, and the branches of it so various and interesting, that it is no wonder a number of treatises should be written on the subject. But among the



the multiplicity of books already published on trade and commerce, we have seen none equal to the treatise before us; both with regard to the great variety of useful articles it contains, and the perspicuous manner in which these interesting subjects are explained: we are therefore persuaded, that every young man, desirous of being acquainted with the mercantile business of this opulent kingdom, will think himself obliged to us for recommending this performance to his perusal.

It is divided into twenty chapters, containing the principal and most interesting subjects relating to trade and commerce. In the first the reason on which the arts of traffic are founded, is explained and elucidated. The second initiates the young trader into the great scene of enterprize in which he is going to engage, by laying before him what he may justly expect, and by what means alone he can acquire eminence in the mercantile province. And in the third the authors have explained the nature and enumerated the established customs of promissory notes and bills of exchange; and given the necessary cautions relative to the care requisite to be taken with regard to such writings. The article of insurance is next particularly considered; a subject the more necessary to be understood by an English merchant, as most of the ships and merchandize of Europe are insured on the Exchange in London. The course of exchange follows the doctrine of insurance, and is treated in a very perspicuous manner, and exemplified in all the usual cases. The business of the custom-house is next considered; and by explaining the foundation on which the several rates and duties are founded, the whole of this intricate business is rendered plain, and easy to be understood.

After treating of these useful particulars, the authors proceed to what is properly called Merchants Accounts, or the method of keeping books by merchants, wholesale dealers and shopkeepers; an art so absolutely necessary to every trader, that it is impossible, without it, to carry on any business with satisfaction or advantage. Every thing necessary in this useful art is explained with great perspicuity, and the most beneficial admonitions interspersed for the success and prosperity of the young trader.

The business of factors and supercargoes in the American colonies, is also amply considered; and the method of converting the currency of Jamaica into sterling money, and the contrary, fully explained. To which is annexed a very useful table of exchanging ryals, dollars, pistoles, moidores, guineas and Portugal pieces, into Jamaica money.

The young trader is next introduced into a great variety of forms of business in the negotiation of exchanges, and in draw-

ing, remitting, and other essential qualifications for carrying on a sensible epistolary correspondence.

Next follows a short view of the trade of the world, giving an account of the commodities that each nation which carries on any trade with England takes from her, as well as those we import from thence; together with a succinct account of the various coins of the world, and their intrinsic value in sterling money.

From this account of foreign particulars, the authors return to those of their own country, exhibiting a comprehensive view of the extent and boundaries of the different counties of England, and enumerating their respective produce and manufactures; together with the principal trading fairs in the kingdom. Next follow the customs of London, the rules, orders, and ordinances for governing and regulating carts and carmen, together with their rates and prices for carriage of all goods from one part of the city to another. There is also annexed a table of the rates appointed by the court of lord mayor and aldermen to be taken by watermen plying on the river Thames, between Gravesend and Windsor; together with those of hackney coachmen.

Next follow lists of merchants, factors, tradesmen, agents, &c. in and about London, Westminster, and Southwark: of stage-coaches, machines, and waggons, with the days and hours they set out, from what inns, &c. and the rates paid for traveling to any part of the kingdom: of the names and situations of all the public offices, halls, streets, squares, lanes, courts, yards, rents, wharfs, inns, &c. throughout the cities of London and Westminster, and the borough of Southwark; together with the names of all the towns and villages that surround the metropolis.

This treatise also contains several useful tables; shewing the price or value of all sorts of goods or commodities: of brokerage, for buying or selling stocks, &c. the English pounds and shillings in any number of Portugal pieces of gold: and the interest of money at three, three and a half, four, and five per cent.

From this short enumeration of the principal heads of the treatise before us, we are persuaded some idea may be formed of its real utility; and that it is not improperly called *The young Merchant and Tradesman's sure Guide*. We will venture to add, that if the young trader studies with attention, and carefully reduces to practice, the rules and precepts contained in the *Compting-house Companion*, he will find the pains he has taken amply rewarded, and his labours crowned with the desired success.



As a specimen of the manner in which the authors have conveyed their instructions to the reader, we shall insert the second chapter, where the qualifications of an accomplished merchant are considered.

Though it is unnecessary for the foreign trader to be a profound scholar, yet he should by no means be destitute of a due share of the requisite literature; we mean, of such as is the more particularly adapted to the nature of the employment to which he may be intended.

The merchant carrying on a correspondence with foreign nations, and having a great variety of transactions at home, as well as abroad, he cannot be too ready a penman, to enable him to correspond with judgment, and state his transactions with regularity. To do this requires some knowledge in language; not only that he should write his own grammatically, but that he should be instructed in such other modern language or languages as may consist with the more essential parts of his business: for it is imprudent for any man to hazard his fortune to the scribbling of clerks and translators. Besides, nothing gives foreigners so great an idea of their correspondents, as receiving letters frequently, if not constantly, in his own hand writing, especially where the foreigner does the same. Besides, this is a certain sign, that such give their assiduous attention to their business themselves, and see it done with their own eyes; whereas we daily experience the fatal effects of seeing with those of others.

It may not indeed be absolutely necessary for a merchant of eminence, interested in large concerns, to keep his own books himself; but certainly it is indispensably necessary that he should be able to do so; or how is it possible that he should be able to judge when they are kept as they ought to be? Nor can the person, unskilled in accompts himself, be able to inspect them, so as to know the true state of his affairs, on the greatest emergency. It is an unbecoming meanness, not to say a consummate folly, in any man, whose credit and fortune is daily at stake, to depend solely upon others to lay before him what they please for a state of his affairs. Is it to be wondered that our Gazettes are filled with those wise sort of gentry, that are above taking due care of their accompts? Would a merchant hazard a shilling of his property, either as a trader, or an insurer, under the conduct of that master of a ship, who would presume to sail to any part of the world without chart or compass? The accompts of a merchant are the chart and compass by which he must always steer; and, if his compass is disordered, how can he expect to arrive at the port of prosperity? It is justly proverbial

among the Dutch, that the man who fails did not understand to keep his accompts, as they ought to be.

\* By accompts are understood two branches :

\* 1. Arithmetical computation, and 2. Accomptantship by debtor and creditor. The former is only the hand-maid, as it were, to the latter ; and a man may be a good arithmetician, and admirably skilled in figures, and yet no accomptant, in the latter sense : and there are instances of good accomptants, who are ignorant of the delicacies of arithmetical calculation : but the complete merchant should excel in both, and not trust wholly to any clerk, or numbers of them, whatsoever. And when the merchant is a proficient himself, in every branch of knowledge necessary for his profession, and keeps a strict eye over every servant in the compting-house, that he does his duty ; he need only then occasionally inspect each in his turn ; which would keep every one vigilant in his particular branch of the business, wherein he was employed. Mr. A. says such a merchant to his book-keeper, give me Don Emanuel Cordosa's accompt of Cadiz. If Mr. A. was to answer him, his accompt is not posted up ; but his books are six months, or twelve months, or more perhaps, behind-hand ; in which time there has been twenty different transactions entered in the Brouillon or the Blotter : yet, if these have not been duly posted as well into the ledger as the journal, will not such a merchant be quite confounded and bewildered in his affairs ? He can neither know, whether he is indebted to the Spanish merchant, or the latter to him : especially as the London merchant has sometimes acted in the capacity of a factor for the Spanish merchant, and sometimes the Spanish merchant in the capacity of a factor or principal for him ; and sometimes they have been concerned in partnership in transaction ; at others in negotiating bills for mutual accompt in various parts of Europe : how in such circumstances, can a merchant know the state of his affairs, when his books are twelve months behind-hand ? How is it possible he can maintain an accurate correspondence with the Spanish trader, or any other with whom he is concerned ? And will not he run the risk of being soon seen through by the merchant of regularity in his affairs ? He is liable, every letter he writes, to betray the confusion he is in. In this manner, merchants daily hazard their ruin ; and this to my certain knowledge, not for want themselves of abilities to transact every part of their business, or for want of a competent fortune to circulate the same, but from a weak and imprudent confidence ; which too many repose in their clerks ; and, when this is done from real ignorance in mercantile qualifications, they must have great good fortune indeed, if they can steer clear of misfortunes, when they are incapable of directing



resting their servants to do their duty : and this, I fear also, is the case of too many.

‘ The talents of the merchant are not so mean as some would reckon them. He is a citizen of the world, and, as such, has correspondence wherever his interest leads him : and, without acquaintance in the produce and manufacture of the commercial world, and of the chief mercantile laws of his own, as well as foreign countries, relative to trade : without abilities to obtain the best intelligence, in order to strike the critical time when and where, exportation and importation from nation to nation, drawing, remitting, and negotiating foreign bills, invite to the best advantage : without knowledge of the duties, imposts, subsidies, drawbacks, and bounties, and those charges and allowances at home and abroad, to which the currency of trade is subject, how can those advantages be made that daily offer themselves ? or, how can any previous calculation be made, whether an adventure will turn to account or not ? If the merchant be not thoroughly skilled in foreign monies, and the negotiation of bills by exchange, wherever advantage offers ; as also in foreign weights and measures, and the method of reducing those of one nation reciprocally into those of another, how can he be able to embrace those opportunities of advantage that times and occasions offer ? or how can he be able to judge of foreign monies, and accounts of sales, as his interest would direct him ? Nor is a knowledge of the intrinsic value of foreign specie less necessary than that of the intrinsic par of exchange, according to its fluctuation, in order to deal occasionally between country and country, in the export of foreign coins and bullion, gold and silver, or bills, to the best advantage. In fine, the merchant destitute of this series of information, and talents to apply it occasionally to the more beneficial purposes, can never hope to reap that advantage his profession will afford him ; or sustain the character he bears with any sort of reputation or dignity he might do, if he began with any tolerable fortune : he must owe his success, if he has any, to fortunate hits, and unexpected advantages ; things which no prudent man will chuse to depend upon, for the prosperity of his life.

‘ To the ignorant in these matters, commerce is no better than a game of chance, where the odds is against the player : but, to the accomplished merchant, his profession becomes a science, where skill can scarce fail of its reward ; and, while the one is wandering about in a pathless ocean, without a compass, and depends upon the winds and tides to carry him into his port, the other goes steadily on, in a beaten track of knowledge, which leads him to wealth and honour, if no extraordinary accident intervenes : and if there does, and it appear not to be his

fault, his want of skill, assiduity, or prudential conduct, such a one will soon retrieve his credit, and become re-established with as much honour, as if these inevitable accidents had not happened.

Whoever turns his thoughts on the stupendous circulation of paper-property, throughout the trafficable world, by inland and foreign bills ; and the various customs and usages established amongst traders, in their money negotiations, for the support of universal credit ; on the numberless different transactions, which diversify the business of the merchant ; as buying, selling, exporting and importing, for proper, company and commission account ; drawing on, remitting to various parts of the world at the same time ; and freighting, or hiring out ships to divers other parts, and being himself interested in shipping, insurancing and agency-business in the public funds : whoever duly considers the skill in figure and accomptantship necessary to keep a steady guard over this scene of business, and methodize this great variety of dealings, whereby such trader may always have before him the true state of his affairs ; together with the judgment required to conduct such a complication of daily occurrences, and address to maintain a general correspondence in his own, or the more universal languages, cannot but see the extent of his mercantile qualifications, and that they should not be mean and contracted, with regard to his great and honourable profession.

But the misfortune of too many is, who set out in this capacity, to flatter themselves, that they stand in need of little other qualification than that of a round capital, and an adventurous disposition. Buying and selling, paying and receiving, exporting and importing, as they think, comprehend the whole knowledge of a merchant. And when a low idea is entertained of his accomplishment, it is not extraordinary that many make too light of them. The consequence whereof is fatal to numbers, who rush headlong into commerce, void of accomplishments indispensably necessary.

Let the young merchant be intended either for the general, or the particular trader, he should by no means be neglectful in his apprenticeship, of obtaining a proper knowledge in those commodities wherein he may deal, either by way of export or import. If the trade of a merchant be limited to few particular commodities, wherein he is chiefly concerned, there will be no difficulty in gaining such knowledge ; and, if he is a more general trader in divers sorts of goods, he must be choice in his manufacturers or warehousemen, or packers, with whom he may have connections, that no injury in the qualities of goods exported may be done him : for it is often of great disadvantage  
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at foreign markets; because if these goods are sent abroad for your own accompt, your factor will make complaints upon that head, and this furnishes him with excuses for returning a disadvantageous account of sales; if they are for the foreign trader's accompt, he will not be forward to send you any more commissions of the like nature, and thereby you may lose a beneficial part of your business. To guard against which, it is necessary that either the merchant himself, or his clerk, or broker, in whom he may confide, should be a competent judge of the commodities exported; for it is the business of the foreign trader to run as little hazard as possible at home, he running oftentimes enough abroad. Besides, when foreign commissions are well executed, it is an inducement to their increase, not only from a first correspondent, but frequently by a second or third; for, when foreigners learn that Mr. C. D. has the best sort of goods of a certain kind, they will enquire after his English correspondent, and will throw commissions into his hands likewise; and this is esteemed a branch of business the most to be courted, as a man then becomes a gainer by other people's capitals, if the character of the principals are good.

In the like manner foreign goods should be taken due care of, for the same reason that a Spaniard or a Portuguese, or an Italian, will inspect yours; that you, in your turn, may complain, if for your proper accompt; and if not, your accompt of sales cannot give such satisfaction to your correspondent, as if the quality of them was superior. It is an advantage to have reputable exchange-brokers upon these occasions; not only with respect to their judgment in certain goods, wherein they may be well experienced, but with relation to their buyers; for there have been instances where brokers, for the sake of their commission, will sell a merchant's goods to those who are unable to pay for them; and if these goods happen to be for the accompt of his foreign correspondent, yet if he, as is customary, stands *del credere*, or is responsible for all bad debts, upon having an extra-commission, then the loss will fall upon the English merchant; and, if it falls upon the foreign one, it is no encouragement to send such a trader more commissions. A merchant therefore cannot be too circumspect and cautious, with regard to brokers in goods, and ought not wholly to rely upon them for the characters of buyers; because there have been interesting connections discovered between brokers and the buyers they have recommended, which have sometimes proved injurious to the merchant; and of this the raw and unexperienced trader should be forewarned, of which he will now take care to make his advantage: nor is it unnecessary to be well informed of the character of those with whom you deal in goods; for a merchant  
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herein cannot always have the same satisfaction in this respect as he may have by a broker in foreign bills up on the Royal Exchange, where every merchant is supposed to be sufficiently informed of those with whom he has dealings in that way.

‘ It is necessary also for this class of traders to be as well informed of the characters of those of their foreign correspondents as of their domestic dealers; and it may not be less necessary to have correspondents at divers places, to whom a man may write upon any emergent occasion: for, whoever considers in what manner the more skillful trader prosecutes his foreign business, will hardly think this needless: As, 1. Our national produce and manufacture are exported to Portugal, suppose; and in return we have bullion and foreign goods, or both, brought home. 2. The English merchant sends goods to one foreign port, and loads there the produce of that country to sell at another foreign port, whereby a larger profit is made, than if the goods first exported had been carried directly thither. 3. Bringing away the produce and manufactures of foreign countries, from whence, and when they are cheap, to supply countries when and where the same sell dear. 4. We bring home also the produce of other countries, and export the same when manufactured. 5. We freight, and hire out ships to various parts of the world: and, to transact this circle of business, draughts and remittances by bills of exchange become necessary. This shews the utility of a merchant’s having correspondents of character upon all occasions, to receive and execute their orders readily and punctually: and he that is not duly informed of the character of his foreign correspondent, may carry on large business, the sooner only to hasten his destruction, and he that has good as well as skilful correspondents, a tolerable fortune, and sound mercatorial judgement and discretion, his opportunities for gain are great; or such immense estates as have been raised by this profession could never have happened. For if a man knows properly to multiply his mercantile connections, and make a right use of them, he may make credit, in a great measure, supply the place of a large fortune.—These are some of the mercantile arcana, which are hints only for the benefit of young people, as they grow in experience, to make their advantage of.

‘ To facilitate the mercantile business, bankers, from experience, have been found useful, into whose hands merchants deposit their cash, and draw the same out when they have occasion. Traders of the greatest precaution generally deposit a part of their current cash into the bank of England, another part into the hands of their private banker. With these they keep bank-books, and when they deposit cash, they have credit thereon



thereon for the same, and when they draw any part of the whole out, they are debited, which always keeps their bank-book right. There are several conveniencies herein, as 1. That as merchants have constant concerns either in inland or foreign bills, those being put in the bank or bankers hands, are received by them when due; which saves some, who have large dealings that way, the expence of a clerk, to carry the bills for acceptance or receipt when due. 2. Though the bank of England will not suffer an over-draught, yet bankers will sometimes oblige those who keep cash with them, and will the more readily discount bills due to them for any time to run. 3. Private bankers would only take foreign coin, which the bank refused, till lately. 4. There is also reckoned a greater safety in keeping cash with the bank and bankers, than at home; though we have too often had instances of the failure of bankers; yet, their affairs have, in the end, commonly turned out well, and therefore have proved no great discouragement to their being trusted; and the estates of those in high credit are generally well known.

‘But, the bank and bankers allow no interest for the current cash thus kept with them, because it is daily liable to be drawn out of their hands, by traders, in the constant circulation of their business; but if the bank and bankers did not make some advantage of those temporary deposits, they could not afford to keep those servants they do, for the conduct of their banking business: and the chief advantage arising by our city bankers, is by discounting notes and bills of exchange; by buying stocks; and by the bank making loans to the government occasionally; and private bankers, other kind of loans, upon proper security.’

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ART. IV. *The Martial Review; or a General History of the late Wars; together with the Definitive Treaty, and some Reflections on the probable Consequences of the Peace.* 12mo. Pr. 3s. Newbery.

**W**E cannot, in justice to the author of this Review, help pronouncing that it is, by far, the best Martial one we have seen, of the late war, were it but for this reason, that any man may understand every word of it, though he has not the help of a military dictionary. Without attaching himself to the operations of the field, the Reviewer has most happily blended them with those of the cabinet; a method that renders his main subject the more intelligible, by each reflecting lights upon the other; and yet he has avoided all party altercation so industriously,

triously, that we can discern no more of his political principles than that they are British.

The narrative is taken up from the period immediately preceding the peace of Aix la Chapelle, and the insidious views of the French in that treaty are most justly exposed. It then proceeds gradually to a deduction of our American affairs, which open the grand scenes of action. A reader of taste knows, that a systematical history, such as that before us is, ought to consist of parts so nicely joined, that each depending on the other, to separate any part of the narrative from the whole is doing the work injustice. We, however, can oblige the reader with one part of this work, which may with propriety be detached from the whole, and which will serve to give our reader a sufficient idea of our author's political, as well as literary abilities; we mean the character of George II. which, we believe, he will join us in thinking to be as just as it is highly finished.

While our army abroad remained in this uncomfortable situation, the great and unexpected event of the death of George the 2d happened, on the 25th of October, 1760, between the hours of seven and eight in the morning, in the 77th year of his age, and the 34th of his reign. His death was occasioned by a rupture of the substance of the right ventricle of his heart, which was uncommonly dilated, and which, by stopping the circulation, put an immediate end to his life, without the smallest apparent pain. For some years before he had few or no illnesses, but such as were incident to his advanced age, and his death depended so entirely on natural causes, which appeared at the time of his body being opened, that it is in vain to seek for any other. The last question he ever asked was, in the morning of his death, when he enquired what quarter the wind was in, and expressed some anxiety for the sailing of his fleet.

The uncommon term of life which he enjoyed, which was longer than that of any of his predecessors, was owing to his temperance, sobriety, and regularity. If he had fits of passion, they were so soon over, that they may be said rather to have circulated his blood, than to have disordered his constitution, and he was blest with a peculiar magnanimity, that quickly got the better of any feelings from the blows of fortune; though he had shewed a sincere concern at the death of his queen, and was susceptible of the tender, as well as the violent, passions. To his domestics he was a constant and an easy master, and in private he gave them less trouble than any gentleman of five hundred pounds a year would have given his. He was a prince of indefatigable application to business, and had numerous private correspondents whom he directed and answered with his own hand, for he was generally stirring at seven in the morning, and  
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was employed till near nine in writing letters. By this means, he came to the knowledge of many important particulars in the courts he was concerned with, and, it was thought he had the best intelligence of any man in England. Sometimes, however, he was imposed on, though, upon the whole, it cost him vast sums. He was equally just to his private as public engagements. He hated lying, and detested cowardice. In his private economy he was most exact, and in his personal expences more frugal, than became a great king. He may be said to be rather magnanimous than generous. He looked upon the many exorbitant abuses and impositions that prevailed in his court, as the lawful perquisites of his state officers and their dependents, and never enraged any severe reformation of his public expences. From this principle, he suffered himself, in some particulars, to be ill treated, and in others to be served with scarcely the decency, far less the magnificence, that ought to appear in a royal palace.

As the head justiciary of his people, he was scrupulous of blood, and has been often known to inform himself minutely of the circumstances of the trial, before he signed the sentence, but this tenderness never let him to break into the great lines of either public or private justice. He was so conscious of the difficulty he had to resist applications in capital matters, that he formally declared, upon the suppression of the rebellion of 1745, that he should be directed by his council as to the punishment of the offenders, and it is said, he strictly adhered to this resolution. His person, though scarcely of a middling stature, was erect and well made. His air bespoke him to be a king, and there was a dignity even in the negligences of his dress. That he had great natural courage, would be ridiculous to doubt, and he was himself a most excellent general. But we must now attend the most public parts of his character, in which he will appear, every thing considered, superior to the most glorious of his predecessors.

He came to England with strong prepossessions and some prejudices, as to parties and public affairs. It was not without reason, he thought he had been ill treated by the Tories, and that queen Anne had encouraged a faction in favour of the Pretender. He had been bred up with the highest opinion of the measures formed by king William against the power of France, and he had served under the most illustrious generals of that confederacy. He thought, that the support of the house of Austria against that of Bourbon ought to be the ruling principle of every German patriot, and it was so much his own, that even after he came to the crown, he voluntarily ventured his person at the head of an army in that cause; and this, together

ther with the vast subsidies he and his parliament granted to the heirs of the Austrian succession, enabled her to maintain it, otherwise she must have lost it. Notwithstanding many provocations he received from her obstinacy and inveteracy against the king of Prussia, during the course of that war, he never would have abandoned her, had she not abandoned every principle of justice, honour, and policy, in joining with France, the hereditary enemy of his own and her dominions. His attachments to his electorate, strong and natural as they are acknowledged to have been, gave way on the same occasion; a signal proof of the rectitude of his heart, as well as the soundness of his judgment. Though the chief imputation upon his reign is the above-mentioned attachment, yet, if we should candidly examine it, it would be found to spring from the concern he took in preserving the independency of the Germanic constitution; with which he was perfectly well acquainted, and upon which he thought the liberties of all Europe depended. If he erred in this, he erred in common with the greatest patriots and politicians, that this, and the four preceding ages have produced, even in England itself.

His conduct as king of Great Britain was irreproachable, for he suffered on many occasions his public duties, to get the better of his private affections. By the mere force of good sense he guided parties, by suffering them to think that they were guiding him; for, during the long course of his reign, he never once failed attaining the favourite objects he kept in view. He had the happiness to live till he saw national parties abolished in his regal dominions. This toward the latter end of his reign, rendered his natural disposition practicable, mild, and indeed amiable, and those qualities every day grew, by the increase of his subjects affection to his person and family, which they procured him. This was the true source of that unexampled unanimity, which, during the latter years of his reign, rendered him one of the greatest monarchs that ever sat on any throne.

Having said thus much, we must almost venture to pronounce, that he died in the height of his happiness, as well as of his glory. Had he survived a few months, his satisfaction must have been embittered, by the growing discontents of his subjects, at the sufferings of their brave countrymen in Germany, as well as the prodigious expences and subsidies paid to maintain that war. The enemies of his government, during the first twelve or thirteen years of his reign, accused it of scandalous corruption at home, and inglorious inactivity abroad. We shall not vindicate his then minister, further than by repeating what he said himself, that when he came to power, such was



was the degeneracy of the English, that he was obliged to bribe them even to their duty. That our foreign inactivity was inglorious, is far from being clear; but it is certain, that during that inactivity, the commerce of Great Britain was silently rooting itself through all quarters of the globe, and produced those glorious fruits which were reaped when activity became necessary. Before we close this part of his character, it is but doing it common justice to observe, that his electoral dominions, against the general opinion, were irreparably injured by the accession of his family to the crown of Great Britain; and this may serve as an apology for any little partialities he shewed his subjects there, by sometimes keeping his court at Hanover.

The polite arts flourished in England during his reign, though they were but little indebted to his encouragement. Besides German, French, and Italian, he had no mean knowledge of the Latin, and could converse in the English tongue; but he read his speeches to parliament with a bad grace, and in a disagreeable tone. He encouraged a strict, but not a severe, far less a cruel, observance of military discipline; and he loved those generals, as well as ministers, whose years approached nearest to his own. But he often employed those who were much younger; and till he did so, it cannot be said, that his armies were in any excellent condition. He was as placable in his public as he was in his private resentments. Though he hated France, yet he never manifested that hatred indecently; and when he came into a good understanding with his nephew the king of Prussia, he talked of him as if there never had been the least difference between them. When the party, that had given him the greatest uneasiness in his royal dominions, came into power (which some of its leaders certainly did against his inclination), he seemed to have lost all remembrance of what had passed; and at the same time he never altered his countenance or manner towards those ministers and officers of state who had been removed. Notwithstanding all this, he was much subject to personal prepossessions, which he never was at pains to conceal, for he seemed to catch them by impulse; but they seldom were known to be attended with consequences to the prejudice of their objects. His temperance and frugality induced many to think he died rich, especially as he had a large privy purse; but that was far from being the case. The money and effects of every kind, that he left behind him, were of very little value, which must be owing to his private bounties.

After perusing this quotation, we are not afraid of any censure from our readers for the favourable character we have given of this performance, from which, though small in itself,

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he will receive an easy, and yet a complete, idea of all the military operations of the late war, that deserve a place in such a review. The manner in which it was originally sent into the world, seems to have subjected it to some little inconveniencies; but they are such as can have no manner of effect upon the narrative.

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ART. V. *On religious Liberty: A Sermon preached at St. Paul's Cathedral, on Sunday the 6th of March, 1763, on occasion of the Brief for the Establishment of the Colleges of Philadelphia and New York. Published at the Request of the Managers of the Charity. To which is prefixed, An Address to the principal Inhabitants of the North American Colonies, on occasion of the Peace. By John Brown, D. D. Vicar of Newcastle. 4to. Pr. 1s. Davis and Reymers.*

WE have taken the liberty, in some former strictures on the compositions of Dr. Brown, to express, without reserve, our sentiments concerning him, and have frequently had occasion, with the rest of the world, to disapprove his manner of treating several subjects: from the performance before us, we are inclined to flatter ourselves that our animadversions were not thrown away upon him: the *sermon* now under our consideration, is one of the most sensible and well-written discourses we remember to have met with for some time past. There is prefixed to it, An Address to the principal Inhabitants of the British North-American Colonies, on occasion of the Peace; wherein we find many excellent and judicious remarks on the state of our possessions abroad, and some methods pointed out of advancing both our civil and religious interests in those parts: he remarks with great truth, that the consequence of the extinction of religious liberty, and its revival in the days of Luther, (which are at large described in the sermon) hath been, 'that the several sects of Christians dissenting from the established religion of their respective countries, arose in small numbers of men: hence, although mutual dislike hath been too general among the several denominations of Christians, yet the nascent sects have been but seldom of force to controul the leading spirit of the national religion, which hath generally been of power to overbear them by its legal establishment. Thus, both the public peace, and many good effects of religion, (though even in some degree intolerant) have been in part maintained, though the true spirit of religious freedom hath been but little attended to. The religion of the country, though imperfect, hath still been able to co-operate with the wisdom



wisdom of the state; and hence, at least a consistent system of policy hath arisen.

But on the continent of British America, the matter hath been quite otherwise. For here, the several colonies, though united under one common king and country, were from their very first establishment inhabited by Christians of various denominations, divided in principle and opinion; some of them driven from their country by this very want of religious freedom; and all of them but too much tainted with the same intolerant spirit which they so justly condemned in others; on an equality with respect to property and power; and too generally possessed, I fear, with such a mutual dislike and jealousy, as must ever retard many public measures which may respect the common good of All; unless the genuine spirit of Christian Liberty shall at length unite them in the perfect bonds of charity and mutual love. Hence, then, arises a peculiar argument, on which the inhabitants of the American colonies should zealously adopt the generous principles of religious freedom; because that uncharitable disunion and dislike, which, in the European countries, may not affect the public measures, must inevitably, in the American colonies, where the contending religious interests are nearly equal, be attended with consequences which are bad, may possibly be attended with consequences that are fatal.

Hence, then, arises a powerful argument for your putting on the spirit of moderation, and the adoption of religious liberty; without which, even the temporal interests of the colonies must be often obstructed; without which, the distant and out-lying parts of the British settlements must be doomed to live in ignorance and error; and without which the native Indians must either continue in their present deplorable state of idolatry, cruelty, and vice; or must become your most dangerous enemies, by the adoption of the principles of popery.

This naturally leads him to lay before them the peculiar circumstances attending their situation with respect to the popish settlements contiguous to them, and to observe, 'that though a narrow, intolerant, and persecuting spirit hath too frequently been found among the several Protestant churches; yet this false zeal is not attended with the same eagerness for the conversion of others, as is found in the Roman church. The reason of this difference lies here; That the principle of intolerance and persecution arises in the church of Rome from a consistent principle and belief, that there is no salvation beyond the pale of their communion. This principle no Protestant holds; and therefore the false zeal of a persecuting or intolerant Protestant hath not the same foundation, nor is there-

fore attended with the same steady consequences, with that which is built on the popish faith. The persecuting zeal of the Papist is founded in principle; and therefore urges on to conversion from a motive of charity: the persecuting zeal of a Protestant is only founded in passion; and therefore goes no farther than as it is urged by the motive of dislike. Hence the popish colonies will always out-do the Protestant in the conversation of idolators, unless these last be strongly united by the principles of Christian liberty, and animated by a generous zeal for the real welfare of mankind.'

In support of this assertion, he subjoins a confirmation of it, contained in a very sensible letter, from an officer in North-America, in 1758.

'What then (says he) is the proper part for the inhabitants of our colonies to act, under circumstances so delicate and important? Extirpation, or even persecution, the principles of our excellent religion, as well as the humanity of our manners, and the good faith of our politics, do absolutely forbid: nothing therefore is left for you to do, but to combat false zeal with zeal which is according to knowledge; to be united and firm in maintaining, in communicating, in establishing the great and essential principles of Christianity, throwing off the sin which may so easily beset you, that of too great eagerness and unchristian contention, about those secondary and incidental differences of opinion which seem to divide you into various sects, while you all rejoice in one common day, which the glorious light of the gospel hath spread over the British dominions.

'These salutary, great, and glorious purposes, the establishment of colleges in America can alone thoroughly effect. For, in the first place, the frequent communication and intercourse, which this establishment will naturally create among Protestants of every denomination in America, will of course tend to wear off that mutual dislike, which often arises, and is always increased, by that distance and reserve which different sects of religion commonly maintain towards each other. By these means you will often find your principles the same, where you before thought they had differed; by these means, you will often find you have wished each other well, when both parties suspected the contrary.'

The Doctor has chosen for his text these words from the fifth chapter of Paul's epistle to the Galatians;—*Stand fast, therefore, in the liberty wherewith Christ hath made us free, and be not entangled again with the yoke of bondage.* From which he takes occasion, first, to consider the nature of religious liberty; secondly, to remark the several violations of it in the Christian



Christian church; and, thirdly, the progress that has been made towards its restoration; to which are, lastly, subjoined some reflections with regard to its completion.

Every part of this discourse is so agreeably and usefully connected with each other, that we cannot select any particular passages without doing some injustice to the whole, which abounds throughout with judicious remarks, and salutary instructions. What he has observed with regard to the reformation is so just, that we cannot refuse our readers a sight of it.

‘It must (says Dr. Brown) be at once owned and lamented; that the very same persons and churches who had so nobly run the race of honour, unhappily stopt short in their full career of glory, strangely attempting to deprive others of that religious freedom, which they had so bravely exercised themselves. Thus they miserably halted between two opinions; asserting their own right of private judgment, yet denying it to those who dissented from their belief. The conduct of Calvin, in this particular, is most notorious. While he exclaimed against the persecutions of the Romish church, he himself persecuted Servetus even to the stake. Neither was this the mere effect of a hot and violent temper, inflamed by party zeal; but rather the deliberate dictates, the affirmed principles of that Genevan church, whereof he was the founder. For thus one of its most applauded doctors writes,—one who is allowed to be the best explainer and defender of its principles; who, after having discussed this question, concerning the right of persecution, with all the art of an able man labouring under a bad cause, concludes thus:—“*Concludimus, Magistratum Christianum posse pœna capitali in similes pestes & hominum monstra animadvertere.*”—“We conclude, therefore, that the Christian magistrate may punish such pests and monsters with death.” Now, where is the difference between this, and the most bloody papal inquisition? If there be a difference, it lies only with regard to the particular opinions to be animadverted on: the Papist will destroy you for holding one opinion; the Calvinist for holding another; but the infernal principle of persecution is the same in both.

‘If we come home, to the consideration of some of our own most eminent reformers, we must be very blind or very partial; not to admit, that they likewise laboured under a like defect. Many of them, amiable and honest and praiseworthy in all other respects, were yet wanting in the true and generous spirit of liberty; that noble and Christian spirit, which knows the weakness of man; which knows how liable he is to error; and thence makes allowance for difference of opinion: even one of the most eminent, the great Cranmer, whose very weakness

served at his dying hour only to increase his glory, even he did not escape the infection of the times, but blotted his fame by the persecution and death of an ignorant enthusiast. What happened since that time is generally known; during some of the succeeding reigns, while a family was on the throne, that seemed born to entail miseries on themselves and Great-Britain, religious liberty was again on the decline. Persecution for conscience sake, star-chambers, and oppressive inquisitions, began to cast a gloom over the nation; till at last a weak prince, strong in nothing but bigotry and false zeal, had soon again over-whelmed us in the torrent of superstition and papal tyranny, had not his madness been opposed and chastised by the brave and free spirit of the nation; a spirit which at all times hath laid like a generous seed in the ground, ready to rise and choak the growths of spiritual oppression.'

In the latter part of the discourse Dr. Brown points out to us the great effects which would naturally arise from true Christian liberty united with true Christian zeal. 'Its first natural effect would be, to clear our excellent religion of those few alloys, which, in the opinion of some, may still remain in it. It would lead us, from hence, to a steady and resolved attention to those things which are the end of all religion, the sincere practice of upright morals, founded in the love of God and man. While our attention and zeal is turned on fruitless debates concerning speculative doctrines or outward observances, the virtues of the heart are apt to sicken and decay. Where a religious indifference takes place, the same effects universally follow. A pious moderation, a charitable zeal, is the only solid foundation of true virtue.

'The next effect would naturally extend to those other Christian sects and churches, who differ from us in points of faith and ceremony. There is a natural dignity and excellence in true Christian charity, which diffuseth a kind of glory round its possessor, and unavoidably attracts veneration and esteem. It carries in itself the united forces of argument and eloquent persuasion. Of argument, because it convinceth our adversaries, that we are possessed of that charity which is the surest characteristic of true religion; of eloquent persuasion, because it naturally creates esteem and love. Thus other sects are naturally compelled to confess, or at least inwardly to approve that excellence in another, which they have not dared to adopt themselves: and this inward approbation is at least the likeliest method to melt the stubborn rigour of reluctant bigotry; and soften it by degrees into the gentleness of Christian love.'

The remainder of the sermon is employed in a particular application to, and recommendation of, the brief for the colleges



leges of Philadelphia and New York; most of our readers, we believe, will recollect the spirited oration, put into the mouth of an American chieftain, with which this sermon concludes, as it was inserted, soon after the delivery, in most of the newspapers. We shall therefore only observe, that, with regard to this discourse, we may venture to pronounce it much the best and most unexceptionable performance ever written by this multifarious writer, and would therefore heartily recommend it to Dr. Brown to quit all his fine-spun theories in criticism and politics, all his theatrical and poetical amusements, and apply himself intirely to the labours suitable to his profession; for which, as this discourse is a sufficient proof, he seems in all respects to be thoroughly qualified.

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ART. VI. *The North Briton.* Two Volumes small Octavo. Pr. 10s. 6d. Williams.

AS we look upon the two volumes of this work now before us to contain the genuine papers of its original authors, we shall treat it not only with all the candour, but the lenity, which the impending prosecution against the gentleman, who is supposed to have had the principal hand in it, claims. But it is here necessary to introduce our review of this collection, for the benefit of our readers, especially the younger part of them, with a slight recapitulation of the former opposition-papers, that have been published within our own times and memory. We do this, not to convey any idea of the merit, but of the propriety, of this publication.

Mist's Journal, a stupid illiberal paper, was the first that made any figure against the government, since the accession of the present royal family. It had no object of opposition, but the protestant succession; but even its dulness could not protect its author and publisher from the pillory, which, (for the benefit of our present ministers) we must observe, cleared up the *Fog*, that succeeded the *Mist*, into a very benevolent sun-shine for the proprietor and authors; for every body ran to read the sequel of a work that had merited the pillory. *Fog's Journal* subsisted for some time by the help of correspondents; but, having in it no radical moisture, that is, the standing author being a man of no genius, wit, or learning, it withered at last. The same may be said of the paper he next undertook, called *Common Sense*, which was likewise dried up because it was supplied only by fortuitous streams. We do not find that any severe prosecutions were commenced against the authors or publishers.

publishers of either of the last mentioned papers ; and this cruel forbearance of the government was perhaps the reason why they were so short-lived. Sir Robert Walpole, however, who was a very good-natured man, unwilling totally to deprive the publishers and authors of their bread, ordered them sometimes to be taken into the custody of messengers of state, which seldom failed of giving a new blaze to the weekly flame, which otherwise must have expired of itself.

The *True Briton*, which began to be published about the time of the bishop of Rochester's plot, was written by that unfortunate nobleman the duke of Wharton, and had more sterling merit in the requisites of worth, taste, and learning, than perhaps any publication of that kind, which had till then appeared in England. Every body knows the history of that nobleman. He was thought to be the author of the letter, which the government construed to allude, under the mask of Miriweis, and his Persian usurpation, to the present royal family. That paper, if written at this time, would scarcely meet with reprehension. In those times, the printers and publishers, even to the meanest devil about the press, were so apprehensive of their necks being in danger, that they fled abroad ; and the printer himself, Wolf, we are informed, at this very time, keeps an alehouse at Boulogne in France. The fate of the supposed most noble author was still more deplorable ; he died a despised rebel and beggar in a foreign country, and in his own was at once admired and detested.

The plan of the *Craftsman* was laid at the time when the whig ministry under George I. split among themselves. The patrons of the paper pitched upon Amhurst to be its standing author ; but, though his intemperance and levity rendered him every way incapable of such a charge, yet the paper was so well supplied by Daniel Pulteney, lord Bolingbroke, another noble personage now alive, and other great names that will reflect perpetual honour upon that period of our history, that it continued long in great reputation. It met, however, with a rub, somewhat similar to the trial of Chartres ; for, after every week publishing letters that stabbed government to its very vitals, the publishers were prosecuted for a foreign letter, not only the most harmless of any perhaps ever published of the kind, but which was in every tittle verified by the event. It underwent another prosecution for another paper, that would puzzle a very ingenious head to find in it matter of offence to any government. We shall not venture to say that the managers of the prosecution were in fee with the publishers of the paper, but, it is certain, that those prosecutions, and the  
punishments



punishments attending them, encreased the sale of the paper to about 12000 a week.

Hitherto the opposition had a great and a national object, which was the all-ingrossing power, and the avowed corruption, of the minister, who, at last, may be said to have tumbled by his own weight, and by making every man of wit, sense, or spirit, in the kingdom, his enemy. The next party-paper, which was patronized by the leaders of the opposition, was *Old England*, or Jeffery Broadbottom's Journal; its object was the minister, who succeeded Walpole in his power in the cabinet, which he had made use of to engage the nation in continental connections. This minister was so apprehensive of the consequences, that the author was taken into custody upon the publication of his third or fourth letter; and, though he met with no punishment, underwent so severe a prosecution, that it established the sale and credit of the paper, which was reckoned the main engine of heaving lord Carteret from his power; and then he dropt his pen. We shall only here observe, that lord Carteret's continental measures produced that coalition among the great men of those days, which bade fair to leave the king without a servant, the army without a general, the law without a head, the seals without a secretary, and the public without a minister. In such universal detestation were continental measures then held, that nothing was more common than to say, that there were but two parties in the nation, the one consisting of lord Carteret, and the other of the people of England; though the support of the house of Austria, which always had been a favourite measure with English protestants, was the professed basis of all those connections.

After the discontinuance of the Broadbottom Journal, Mr. Ralph, who had been assistant to Mr. Guthrie in writing it, was taken into the pay of his royal highness the late prince of Wales, and engaged in several opposition papers, the *Remembrancer* particularly, which had for their objects a great royal personage, and the two brothers, who were obnoxious for the power of the former in the army, and of the two latter in the cabinet; and which, perhaps not unjustly, was thought somewhat derogatory to that respect which ought to be shewn to a prince of Wales, when not lying under declared marks of his father's displeasure. The opposition, however, at that time could only keep up a kind of a hedge-firing from the press. Though Ralph was a very able, and indeed a masterly, writer, yet there was a sameness in his compositions that palled upon the taste of the public, and his papers rather cemented than encreased the party. The inundation of *Tests*, *Contests*, and

a thousand other papers that overspread the land, during the scramble for power after the death of Mr. Pelham, had properly no national object of offence, an indispensable requisite for an opposition paper; and Mr. Pitt, during his administration, can scarcely be said to have experienced an attack from the press, till the *Considerations of the German War* appeared: but that author, being no periodical writer, falls not within our compass.

The *North Briton* is of too recent an original, and its rise too well known, for us to resume it here. We are candid enough to own, that the sudden advancement of lord Bute, without any apparent experience in public business, over those who had grown grey in ministerial offices, rendered him an object of jealousy; but he became an object of opposition, before he had been guilty of any one measure to be opposed. A thousand prints, pamphlets, and hackneyed stories heated the oven of popular indignation, before the contents, it was to receive, were ready. The first paper of this collection was published, June 5, 1762, and, though written with spirit, contains nothing but the stale topics of the enmity of ministers to the liberty of the press, and the comparison of ministerial writers to Dymock's throwing down his gauntlet, which has been hackneyed into fritters by almost every opposition-writer since the Revolution. A paper, called *The Briton*, written in defence of the then new administration, gave rise to the title of the *North Briton*: but the author of the latter, we think, upon the whole, has been very inconsistent in his plan; for, like Fielding's *Jacobite Journal*, he sets out ironically in the person of a North Briton, and next week drops that character, or sinks it into that of a staunch South British opposition-man. This impropriety, however, is venial, and perhaps, not ill-judged, as it helps to introduce variety.—The second number declares the author's object of opposition to be the placing lord Bute at the head of the treasury, at which board two other Scotchmen sat at that time. We are, however, again to observe, that, on the 12th of June, 1762, when that paper was written, lord Bute had not been accessory to any one measure, that could make him an object of opposition. As to the two Scotch commissioners of the treasury, they were planted there long before his time.

It is not with any spirit of acrimony against the *North Briton*, that we must blame the writers in the opposition for blending the preferments and favours shewn to Scotchmen before lord Bute came into power, with those that were conferred after, if any such were; for we can scarcely recollect one that was considerable enough to attract the public attention, much less animadversion. If we keep this observation in our eye, the propriety of the *North Briton's* opposition must be very questionable,



enable, while directed to a national purpose; and an opposition on personal accounts, is perhaps hardly to be reconciled to patriotism.——We should be extremely glad to find in the first nine papers of the *North Briton*, a single argument founded on fact; but, at the same time, we cannot help owning that the declamation they contain is keen and spirited.——The loss of Newfoundland, which the author introduces in the ninth number, is the first topic of opposition he touches upon, that can be called national. In this he triumphs, and indeed most unmercifully, through several papers, till he is silenced by as unmerciful an antagonist, viz. the London Gazette, who told us, that the place was no sooner lost than it was retaken, and that too without the loss of ships, time, men, or money.

The dispute between him and the *Briton*, whether the taking of Martinico was, or was not, planned by Mr. Pitt, is, we think, of very little consequence, and we are apt to believe it was; but, it must be admitted, at the same time, that, if lord Bute was possessed of the cabinet, it never could have been carried happily into execution, had he not been a most sincere and hearty friend to the undertaking.——The tenth number, which is levelled against the Scotch presbyterians, proceeds on principles that are diametrically opposite to facts, as it is well known to every Englishman who has been in Scotland, that the presbyterians there have always been the declared friends of the protestant succession; and the episcopalians, or what some would call the church of England party, its enemies. We shall omit the dispute between our author and the *Auditor*, who stepped in as a co-adjutor to the *Briton*; and but just mention his strictures upon pensions: because, supposing all he says to be true, the whole collected cannot amount to a peccadillo in ministerial management. We shall admit Mr. Johnson to have been suspected (though we know not on what grounds) as to his political principles; and, perhaps we are not averse from thinking that Mr. John Home is not quite so good a poet as Shakespear, or Milton, or even Pope; but what is all that to a great national purpose? Let any man turn over the journals of the house of commons, during the reigns of king William and queen Anne, when the nation was engaged in that war which laid the foundation of our present public debt, and he will find near 100,000 l. a year granted in pensions to names that never were heard of by the public.

The description of the people and country of Scotland by James Howell, gent. which takes up number 13, can never be considered as argumentative; and if we mistake not it may be found from other writings of that author, who was next to a madman,

madman, that he never was in Scotland. As a specimen of Howell's talents for declamations of that kind, he published a thin folio of orations, where one set of speakers are employed in making panegyrics, and another alternately in delivering invectives for and against every nation in Europe. The parallel, which the author endeavours to run between the treaty of Utrecht and that of Paris or Fontainebleau, might have been extremely pertinent, had he been able to prove either that the French nation was as much exhausted when the late peace was concluded, as it was at the time of the treaty of Utrecht; that England was equally well backed by allies; that her national debt was equally inconsiderable; and that her population was equally flourishing in the latter as in the former period.

The rest of the first volume is levelled against the honour which lord Bute's master did him in giving him the garter; against Mr. Hogarth and his print of the Times; against some uninteresting expressions of the *Briton* and *Auditor*, and, at last, it presents us with the famous interview between lord Bute's son and colonel Wilkes at Winchester. In all this we have nothing to object to the *North Briton's* stile or manner. Illiberality and indecency, exaggeration of circumstances and misrepresentation of facts claim, by prescription, admission into political controversies; nor do we pretend to say that the pages of his opponents are entirely pure from the same blots. But let us ask any intelligent reader *quorsum hæc?* what are all those matters, giving up all the *North Briton* contends for, to the purposes of a great national opposition? are they, or were they, of importance enough to break that national unanimity, which, at the accession of his present majesty, formed his strength, his glory, and his happiness?

The *North Briton's* encomiums upon Mr. Pitt's abilities and virtues, are what every unprejudiced Briton will readily subscribe to; and his merits, when the glare of party is over, must stand acknowledged.—The verses introduced in the 22d number, under the title of the *Poetry Professors*, are full of wit and humour; and nothing can be more just than the high encomiums bestowed by the author upon the persons and families, for their attachment to public liberty, of several of the noblemen who are now supposed to lead the opposition.

The second volume opens with a dialogue between the earl of Buchanan and duke d'Orfuna, in which we cannot greatly compliment the author upon his attention, either to truth, argument, or decency. The next paper carries with it a greater face of reasoning than any of the preceding. Here the author endeavours to prove that the success of the expedition against Martinico was owing to Mr. Pitt's administration, and the



the mortality attending that to the Havannah to lord Bute's, through the unseasonable delay the armament met with. Some of the *North Briton's* patrons, however, who not only were consulted upon, but actually directed all the executive part of that expedition, may not think themselves greatly obliged to him for this censure. The subject of the rest of the paper is too recent, and has been too often discussed since that time to require any animadversions from us.—In the 27th number the author links himself into the cause of the dullest of all dull papers, the *Monitor*; tho' we shall always be ready to join with him in censuring whatever has the most distant appearance of an attempt upon the liberty of the press.—His 28th paper, however smart it may be, and whatever face of reasoning it may carry, can be of no service to a national cause; nor can it ever affect lord Bute, that mons. de Torcy, or lord Walpole of Woolterton delivered their sentiments, as they have done, upon the occurrences of their own negotiations.—As to the 29th paper, we are promised, in this new edition, to have the key of it in a third volume; and therefore, as it requires a key, it betrays no share of ignorance to say, that at present the meaning of it is locked up from us. The personal altercations contained in the 30th number, have no regard to national affairs, and the argumentative part of that paper concerning the recovery of Newfoundland turns strongly upon the *North Briton* himself.—The comparison between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Rigby in the 31st number is a good laughable paper, but still the great question returns, *cui bono*, what purpose does it serve? Surely it is of no manner of signification to this kingdom, it is no ground of public contest, that the one gentleman goes to bed at 10 o'clock, and the other at two in the morning. The same may be said of the following paper, which is an address to the Cocoa Tree. Are the present gentlemen who form that club, if any such exist, answerable for the ravings of a hot-brained party sixty years ago, or for any one of the facts therein alledged? supposing one of them was to stand up, and say they are all d——d lies, and another was to own them to be all real truths. In the first case, what is that to the Cocoa Tree club? In the latter, what is it to the nation, unless we conclude that both his majesty's cabinet and privy-council sit in that coffee-house, and that every customer to it has a right to decide on all affairs foreign and domestic? The blending jacobitism and toryism in the next paper might answer the writer's purposes at that time; but still a ministerial man may object that a principle is taken for granted, which is fundamentally false; and we are of opinion that the *North Briton*.

*Briton* would find it very difficult, in point of fact, to prove jacobitism and toryism to be the same.

Some part of N<sup>o</sup> 34 is of too tender a nature for us to touch upon; nor indeed is it of importance to the public, whether lord Bute formed the mind of our amiable monarch as it now is; but if it was formed (though by the bye we doubt of the propriety of the expression) the greatest gratitude is due from the pupil to the tutor, or by whatever name the *North Briton* shall please to call him. We cannot concur with the *North Briton*, in thinking Mallet's *Elvira* to be a poor flimsy performance, and the representation of it to be an insult upon the understanding of an English audience. May the *Auditor*, whom our author has buried, sleep in peace, and the turf of Florida be ever verdant over his grave; but perhaps never was there so flagrant an affront offered to the intellects of a sensible people, as the abuse of the Scots in the same number, and indeed, through the whole of the papers before us. Without awakening little altercations, or reviving obsolete arguments, we shall only take the liberty to refer the *North Briton*, and his readers, to the articles of the union, and to his remembrance, that it is in right of the Scottish and the Stuart line, that the family of Brunswick now sits on the throne of Great Britain. As to his strictures upon the peace, they have been again and again canvassed; and, if we may speak impartially, fully answered in subsequent publications, of which we have given an account in our Review. The personalities of some subsequent papers, particularly of that signed J. Murray, and supposed to be written by the old pretender, read very well at the time when they wore the gloss of novelty; but we own that, with all our impartiality, we have not half the pleasure in reading them now as we had when they were first published.—The 39th number is very arch, and great part of it very true. But, after all, what is the substance of all our author's advances, when digested in the alembic of national interest, or weighed in the ballance against public peace and unanimity?

The memorial of Mr. Ghest about oats, in the 40th number, (admitting all it contains to be true) is one of the little frauds of office that have been practised in all times, under the most vigilant administrations, and the gentleman against whom the memorial seems to be chiefly levelled, is not now in a capacity of giving any more public offence.—No. 41. is a good laughable paper, and we wish with all our hearts that Mr. Gilbert Elliot's son had been more than ten years of age before he received his commission; but we have been informed, that even that stumbling-block, small as it was, has been removed.—No. 42. is spent



spent upon accounts, the most improper subject in the world for a Reviewer to criticize, because they always speak for themselves.—We wish sincerely, that the tax upon cyder, upon which the *North Briton* triumphs in his 43d number, had never taken place; but the nation seems to be in no great danger of feeling its weight. We cannot help here expressing our surprize, at the ridiculous light in which a great magistrate, who has been always thought to be connected with the hero of the *North Briton*, is exhibited towards the end of this paper.—The 44th *North Briton*, making allowances for the spirit of party, is a shrewd and a sensible paper;—and the discussion of the 45th being now under legal cognizance, it would be both unsafe and ungenerous for us to touch upon it. Should it receive a legal condemnation, we know not what consequences it might have with regard to our publisher, were we to recommend it; and should its fate be otherwise, we never should forgive ourselves should we condemn it.

Upon the whole, we hope we shall be acquitted by every candid and judicious reader, in the account we have given of those celebrated papers, from every imputation of rancour or party, but above all of resentment. What we mean is, to present to the public, in a cool hour of recollection, a Review of those objects, which, when they first made their appearance, presented themselves to many through the mediums of party and prepossession.

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ART. VII. *A Bavin of Bays: Containing various Original Essays in Poetry. By a Minor Poet. 12mo. Pr. 3s. sewed. Oliver.*

THESE men of wit, as Sir John Brute observes, have such quaint ways of expressing themselves, that one can't easily understand them. Who would ever have thought that a *Bavin of Bays* meant poetical essays? another *Minor Poet* of our age, if we are not mistaken, calls his productions *Buds of Parnassus*: these gentlemen might, with equal, or perhaps greater, propriety, for any thing we see to the contrary, have called their verses Offerings to Cloacina, the Trunk-maker's furniture, or A Present to the Pastry-cook. With regard to the author of the *original essays* before us, whatever title he may assume to the *Bavin of Bays*, he has certainly no claim to one Sprig of Laurel, as his performances are the most contemptible things by way of poetry which we have met with for some time past. In the preface our *Minor* (quere, Whether it should not rather be *minus*?) *Poet*, tells us, he is induced to hope he has nothing more to do with Judge Criticism, and his court of inquest, than to plead guilty, and solicit the mercy of the court. What mercy the

the public will shew him, we cannot pretend to determine ; but are inclined to think, that, if he had lived in Julius Cæsar's time, the people would have cried out, as they did against poor Cinna, "Tear him to pieces for his bad verses." A poet of any modesty, whatever share of genius he might possess, would not wittingly have entered the lists against the inimitable Thomson, and chosen for his subject the Four Seasons, which this gentleman has most miserably disguised. We will give our readers an extract from his Autumn.

' With milder radiance Sol now greets the day,  
And splendid Ceres beams upon his ray :  
The wealthy fields her golden tresses wear,  
And poppy topknots deck their flowing hair.  
Now as the farmer's heart with joy distends,  
The rain perhaps with sudden force descends,  
And all his golden hopes of profit ends :  
The forests shake, wind bends the ripen'd plain,  
And cruel storms wide-waste the ravag'd grain :  
The clouds fast pour, and all the ditches swell,  
Nor can the banks the rising rivers quell ;  
But inundation sweeps all o'er the plain,  
And fills with sorrow the lamenting swain,  
Whose anxious breast high-heaves with heavy care  
At the sad issue of the painful year.  
From such misfortunes heav'n our fields defend,  
And crown our harvests with a happier end.

' The hunter's tumult next my muse employs,  
And, hark ! she listens to their clam'rous noise :  
Rous'd by the dawn they hail the infant morn,  
And wake the valleys with the strepent horn ;  
Thro' woods o'er wilds the flying stag pursue,  
Rejoice to press him, and his danger view.  
When the poor beast in vain has try'd the shades,  
The hills, the vales, the thickets and the glades ;  
In vain retreated to the inmost woods,  
And brav'd the danger of opposing floods ;  
The hunters joy to see him stand at bay,  
And back the dogs, less cruel much than they ;  
— One kills for pleasure — t'other hunts for prey.  
Oppress'd he sinks, by savages o'ercome ;  
And weeps reluctant at his bloody doom.

' Sometimes with spaniels sportsmen spend the day,  
And hidden birds in meshy nets betray :  
Struck by the gale, the dog with conscious nose  
The cunning quails and covey'd brood disclose.

Then,



Then, see the sportsman draw the net with care,  
And all the brood fall victims to the snare;  
Or if by chance this artifice they shun,  
They're still obnoxious to the fatal gun.

' No more, my muse, this barb'rous theme pursue;  
A scene more grateful opens to thy view.  
See! the brown nuts in cluster'd stores invite  
The shepherd-swain, to taste the last delight  
Of woodlands, lost to all the love and song  
So late the birds did in their shades prolong.

' By some fair orchard, near a pebbled spring,  
In lays unpolish'd I'll Pomona sing,  
Who reigns triumphant, and with genial pow'r  
Repletes the trees with one enripen'd show'r.  
O'er spray-spread walls I cast my wand'ring eyes,  
Where varied fruits with varied graces rise;  
Here beauteous peaches downy charms display,  
There ruddy nest'rines court th'autumnal ray:  
Here azure plumbs and figs unfold their fruit,  
There cluster'd vines their curling tendrils shoot.  
On grapes delicious meeken'd Phoebus plays,  
And vineyards beam refulgent on the days.  
Till luscious wines are from the vintage prest,  
The quick Champagne, and Burgundy the best.  
For youthful Bacchus let me wake the lyre;  
He can delight us, can with joy inspire:  
Those he possesses dread not war's alarms;  
E'en cowards then the thought of danger charms.  
O let my cellar boast his choicest juice,  
For social service and for various use:  
The joys which from its cordial influence flow,  
Make beggars great and barren poets glow;  
Its prudent use invigorates the soul:  
But Circe lurks in the repeated bowl,  
Which with the bliss envelop'd torment brings,  
The sense imprisons, and fair reason stings.'

In the beginning of this sublime description the image of the *poppy topknots* is peculiarly happy: that the *ditches should swell* when the *clouds pour*, is, no doubt, very astonishing; nor is it less to be wondered at, that the *banks cannot quell the rivers* when there is an *inundation*. But the two finest lines are certainly these,

' On grapes delicious meeken'd Phoebus plays,  
And vineyards beam refulgent on the days.'

*Meeken'd*

*Meeken'd Phoebus* is, to be sure, an expression entirely new, and therefore must please; but what our author means by *vineyards beaming on the days*, we acknowledge is past our critical skill to conceive.

Our *minor Poet*, not content with torturing the poor seasons through four tedious cantos, has persecuted them in every single month. We will give our readers a taste of his October, which is a miserable brewing indeed. It begins thus:

‘ With acorns crown’d and with a wither’d face,  
The russet month resumes his wonted place;  
The latest fruitage of the languid year  
Him ruddy paints, and lifts with mellow cheer;  
While sick’ning nature with reluctance frowns,  
Beholds his empire, and his power owns;  
Quits her gay posts the summer plains along,  
And hears no more the lark’s aspiring song,  
Melodious, which so late attun’d from high,  
Rejoic’d the earth and melodiz’d the sky;  
Or if she hears, so weak’s the lessen’d strain  
It cheers not half the unattentive plain.  
While softer Sol now sheds his meeker beams,  
And glimmers pallid o’er the prattling streams;  
I hail the equal day, and o’er the green  
Where Merrud’s charms diversify the scene,  
And simple nature’s sumptuously serene,  
Renew my walks thro’ walks of falling shade,  
Where umber trees autumnally array’d  
Shed ebon umbrage:—yet a fair retreat,  
The poet’s visit and the muse’s seat.’

The image of a lark *melodizing the sky*, is amazingly poetical; but the *umber trees that shed ebon umbrage*, is infinitely superior to it: but observe, gentle reader, how the poet rises;

‘ No more we see the beechy mountain high  
With piercing summit cleave th’impending sky;  
Nor view its sides with varied green delight,  
While bleating lambkins whiten on the sight;  
But hid in vapours misty moisture drinks,  
And from the eye and from the prospect sinks.  
The wood no more, no more we see the plain,  
Nor sight of object the minutest gain.  
Old Medway rolls his mist-crown’d stream so slow,  
You’d think his current had forgot to flow;  
And that in sadness sullenly he stood,  
Resolv’d no longer to advance his flood.

While



While thus thick miſts enwrap the cliſtry ſteep,  
 The ſhallow riv'let and the river deep;  
 One chaos-ſcene in blue confuſion reigns,  
 And the dimm'd eye not one enlargement gains,  
 Save where the ſun with wide refracted glare  
 Emits weak luſtre thro' the turbid air,  
 Emits and gilds the miſt-chaotic ſhade,  
 By which odd objects frightfully are made;  
 A giant-ſhape the ſturdy ploughman bears,  
 Twice magnify'd the bowing bull appears,  
 And hill-like cattle look the lab'ring ſteers. }  
 October's reign the ſwallow tribe alarms,  
 Who wanton flit no longer in the charms  
 Of ſummer's-ſunſhine and propitious air, }  
 But fly in flocks, to wintry reſt repair,  
 Or dead retirement under water ſhare.  
 Or in commotion wing their conſcious way  
 To climates hot with Sol's revolving ray.  
 Fearful of winter and approaching cold,  
 The ſtorks in council their alarm unfold,  
 And 'merg'd in water quick migration gain, }  
 Or join'd in bands a vig'rous flight ſuſtain  
 To lands propitious where warm-beamings reign. }

The idea of the obſtinate *old Medway* that reſolves to ſtand ſtill, is remarkably pictureſque; nor can we ſufficiently admire the compound epithet *miſt-chaotic*, though we afterwards meet with ſome others equally new and aſtoniſhing, ſuch as *many-va-ry'd*, *leaf-loſt*, *pale-appearing*, *gay-ey'd*, *joy-wing'd*, &c. &c. The reſt of this volume is made up of elegies, odes, fragments, epi-taphs, hymns, &c. all in the true modern taſte. Upon the whole, this Minor Poet's *Bavin of Bays* is fit for nothing but, like other *Bavins*, to be committed to the flames, where it may crack and bounce a little, and ſoon expire.

ART. VIII. *Pietas et Gratulatio Collegii Cantabrigienſis ad Nov-anglos.*

**I**T muſt give a ſenſible pleaſure to every lover of his country; to ſee ſcience and literature extending themſelves with our conqueſts, and diffuſing their influence over every part of his ma-jeſty's dominions: the verſes before us were ſent over from the preſident and fellows of Harvard College in Cambridge, in the province of Maſſachuſett's Bay, in America; and though they cannot, conſidered in the whole, boaſt of that claſſical elegance

and correctness, which distinguish the productions of Oxford and Cambridge, are by no means without merit. They consist of Greek, Latin, and English, and are introduced by a very modest and sensible dedication to the king. As the compliments are now rather of the latest, to engage the public attention, we shall give our readers but a very few short quotations from them.

These lines in the *Adhortatio Præsidis*, which is the first copy, have something in them truly Horatian.

‘ Me,—qui peracta militia mea,  
Non longa restat jam mora, quin sequar,  
Quid me decebit, quam recentem  
Imbuerim ut lachrymis favillam ?  
Vos, queis vigescit spiritus integer,  
Pectusque Phoebi vividus impetus  
Accendit, ad solemniores  
Apta modos adhibete plectra.’  
‘ Afferte flores, fertaque necite  
Cinctura circum Cæsareum caput ;  
Cum fronde myrteoque laurum  
In socios religate nexus.  
Sic forsan et vos vestraque munera  
Blando benignus lumine viderit,  
Miratus ignotas camoenas  
Sole sub Hesperio calentes.’

Among the English the eleventh copy (for they are not distinguished by the writers names, like the verses from our own universities) is, in our opinion, much the best : the following lines have spirit in them.

‘ Blush, grandeur ! blush, in all thy purple pride,  
True greatness is to goodness close allied :  
The worthy heart will ever claim esteem ;  
O Prince, thy virtue is thy brightest gem :  
Food for applause to distant realms dispense,  
Beyond the reach of poor magnificence :  
Blessings are tongu’d, and ever on the wing—  
A wond’ring world’s a circle for a king.  
Joy to the realms where slav’ry was design’d,  
A BRUNSWICK reigns, the guardian of mankind,  
While gay-ey’d conquest rears his banners high,  
A flaming meteor in the Gallic sky,  
He bids his bolted thunders cease to roar ;  
And offers peace to Gallia’s faithless shore.



Blest Prince! whose unexampled goodness charms,  
Thy people's blessings be thy brightest arms :  
The base of empire is the king's desert,  
And merit is the monarch of the heart :  
Nor hostile worlds shall fav'rite GEORGE dethrone ;  
Each Briton's breast's a barrier to his own.  
May one clear calm attend thee to thy close,  
One lengthen'd sunshine of complete repose :  
Correct our crimes, and beam that Christian mind  
O'er the wide wreck of dissolute mankind ;  
To calm-brow'd peace, the mad'ning world restore,  
Or lash the demon thirsting still for gore ;  
'Till nature's utmost bound thy arms restrain,  
And prostrate tyrants bite the British chain.'

The last copy, which is called *Epilogus*, contains a modest apology for the American muses, which is remarkably elegant, where after telling us that they are desirous of emulating our seats of learning here, the author adds, no less modestly than poetically,

Obstat huic Phoebus, chorus omnis obstat  
Virginum ; frustra officiosa pensum  
Tentat insuetum indocilis ferire  
Plectra juvenus.

Attamen, si quid studium placendi,  
Si valent quidquam pietas fidesque  
Civica, omnino rudis haud peribit

Gratia Musæ.

Quin erit tempus, cupidi angurantur  
Vana ni Vates, sua cum Novanglis  
Grandius quoddam meliusque carmen

Chorda sonabit.'

We wish this prophecy may, and have great reason to expect that it will, be fulfilled in due time, as the verses from Harvard College seem already to bid fair for a rivalry with the productions of Cam and Isis.

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ART. IX. *Descriptio Angliæ, et Descriptio Londini : Being two Poems in Latin Verse, supposed to be written in the XVth Century. Published at the Request of several learned Gentlemen and Lovers of Antiquity. 4to. Pr. 1s. Rivington.*

WE are told, in a preface to these *poems* (if they may with any propriety be so called) that they will give entertainment to all learned gentlemen and lovers of antiquity, because the MS. from which they were printed, appeared to be wrote in

an old hand, in the *fifteenth* century: we are likewise informed that the reader will discover in them a *classical genius*, though he is at the same time desired to make allowance for a few *false quantities*, occasioned chiefly \* from the difficulty of ranging names of places in verse. The poems contain a description of England and of London, the former in hexameter, the latter in hexameter and pentameter, and, are as our readers will see, by a few quotations, most exact copies of Virgil and Ovid.

The first poem opens with the situation of England, which is thus elegantly and poetically described :

‘ Nobilis Arctæo boreali subjacet axi  
Insula, (quàm veteres scriptis docuere profanis)  
Quæ parallelo est distincta, aut climate nullo;  
Quæ nulli signo, nilli subjecta planetæ est.’

The astronomer will receive infinite pleasure and satisfaction from these lines.

‘ At neque Mars nobis (quantùm sententia multum  
Ista placet multis) Taurusve aut Luna Britannis  
Imperat, hanc nostram semper una Aurea terram  
Rexit, & Angliacos uno cum Pisce Colonus.’

A Westminster school-boy would, indeed, by apt to call in question the last syllable of *semper*, which, we believe, is generally looked upon as short before a vowel. But the enumeration of the several counties in England will make us ample amends: nothing can be more poetical and harmonious than

‘ Cantia, Southampton, Berks, ac Suffexia, Surry,  
Somerset, Cornwall, cum Wilts, Dorsettia, Devon.’  
‘ Istis Middlesex, Essex jungantur & Hartford.’  
‘ Kingston, cum Deptford, Croyden, Windforia clara’  
‘ Tilbury, Newmarket, Walden, Berenia, Chelmsford.’

This, as the editor observes, shews the true *classical genius*, as Pope says,

————— ‘ how sweet the stile,  
So Latin yet so English all the while!’

The division of Wales is truly noble and pathetic :

‘ Inque duas est hæc divisa provincia partes,  
Pars altera australis, borealis & altera dicta;  
Milford in australi, Pembroke, Tenby, Kilcharin, Arford,  
Caernarvon, Kidwell, Sansay, nova Castra, loquuntur.  
Ultrâ quas Urbs est de nomine dicta Davidis,

\* Quere, Whether the editor might not as well have said occasioned by?

Quem



Quem sanctum mirâ cum religione, modoque  
Mirando celebrant, illi nam Luce Sacrata,  
Cæpis vescuntur, cæpis quoque Pilia adornant;  
Quod qui non faciet, non est ab origine Bruti.'

The last lines must be excessively pleasing to every true Briton, as it confirms to us the antiquity of wearing leeks on St. David's day. The description of London in the second poem is equal in point of merit, if not superior, to the first; we will prove this by the following truly Ovidian account of London bridge and St. Paul's.

' Hic quodque magnificam Thamesino gurgite vasto  
Firmati molem cernere pontis erit;  
Bis quinque hunc supra novem (quis crederet) arcus  
Sustentant, celsas fulcit & ipse domos.  
Quam separat Thamesis, pons jungit hic arduus urbem,  
Sæcula cui nusquam prisca dedere parem.  
Celsa quid hinc memorem, numeroque carentia divum,  
Delubra antiquæ religionis opus.  
Pyramidem hinc divi Pauli sanum erigit altam.  
Fulmina quam dicunt sæpè ferire Jovis:  
Templum augustum, amplum, multis sublime columnis  
Marmoreis, ingens urbis & orbis honor.'

And now, gentle reader, not to anticipate by any more quotations, your future pleasure in the perusal of these excellent poems, we sincerely recommend them to the society of Antiquarians, and consign them *blattis tineisque*, with ten thousand other precious relics, equally valuable, already lodged in the repositories of the learned.

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ART. X. *A Letter to the Right Reverend the Lord Bishop of Gloucester. Occasioned by his Tract on the Office and Operations of the Holy Spirit. By John Wesley, M. A. late Fellow of Lincoln-College, Oxford. 12mo. Pr. 1s. Sold by John Wesley, at the Foundery, near upper Moorfields, London.*

THE rapid and dangerous progress of *methodism* amongst us, is, to the last degree, astonishing and unaccountable, in a nation so justly and universally esteemed as our own for its good sense, penetration, and sagacity, especially when we consider what poor and contemptible characters figure at the head of it. The fanatics of the last age, though equally absurd in their doctrines, had men amongst them who were possessed of some parts, learning, and capacity; but the leaders of the methodists are a set of the most stupid and illiterate crea-

tures that ever pretended to mislead a multitude. Their great general *Wesley*, the author of the letter now before us, having been of late most severely drubbed by bishop Warburton in his excellent treatise on the Doctrine of Grace, has here taken up the pen in defence of himself and friends, but alas!

*Nec Diis nec viribus equis.*

Our readers will see on the perusal of it, that this vehement roarer at the Foundery has answered wit with dullness, and reason and argument with shuffling and evasion: that he has even subscribed to the truth of the facts alledged against him, and only endeavoured to excuse himself, by attributing them to causes and motives which could never have been the real source of them. Mr. Wesley sets out with informing us that in this performance he proposes, first, to consider what his lordship (bishop Warburton) advances concerning him, and secondly, what he has advanced concerning the operations of the holy spirit. Please to observe that Mr. W. like a true Pharisee places himself at the upper end of the table, and thinks the latter part of his book good enough for the holy spirit. The stile of this work is so poor and contemptible, that extracts from it would afford our readers but little entertainment: we shall only therefore lay before them a few short quotation, sufficient to give them an idea of Mr. Wesley's merit as a writer; and at the same time shew the weakness and insufficiency of his arguments.

Amongst other strange instances mentioned in the bishop's book of Mr. Wesley's pride and insolence, we are told that he said, "give me where to stand and I will shake the earth." Mr. W. does not deny that he said this, but in answer to the charge only evades it, by saying, 'I meant neither more nor less (though I will not justify the use of so strong an expression) than that I was so deeply penetrated with a sense of the love of God to sinners, that it seemed if I could have declared it to all the world, they could not but be moved thereby.'

Did ever man make so strange a defence as this? he will not justify the use of the expression: is not this giving up the cause at once, and pleading guilty to the indictment?

But let us hear how he shuffles a little further on.

1. "I preached at Darlaston, late a den of lions. But the fiercest of them God has called away, by a train of surprizing strokes." "But not by me, I was not there." 2. "I preached at R. late a place of furious riot and persecution: but quiet and calm, since the bitter rector is gone to give an account of himself to God." 3. Hence we rode to T——n, where the minister was slowly recovering from a violent fit of the palsy, with



with which he was struck immediately after he had been preaching a virulent sermon against the methodists. 4. The case of Mr. W——n was dreadful indeed, and too notorious to be denied. 5. One of the chief of those who came to make the disturbance on the first instant, hanged himself. 6. I was quite surprized when I heard Mr. R. preach: that soft, smooth, tuneful voice, which he so often employed to blaspheme the work of God, was lost, without hope of recovery. 7. Mr. C. spoke so much in favour of the rioters, that they were all discharged. A few days after, walking over the same field, he dropt down, and spoke no more."

"And what is the utmost that can be inferred from all these passages? That I believe these things to have been judgments. What if I did? To believe things are judgments is one thing; to claim a power of inflicting judgments, is another. If indeed I believe things to be judgments which are not, I am to blame. But still this is not claiming any miraculous gift.

But "you cite one who forbad your speaking to some dying criminals, to answer for their souls at the judgment-seat of Christ." I do: but be this wright or wrong, it is not "claiming a power to inflict judgments.

"Yes it is: for these judgments are fulminated with the air of one, who had the divine vengeance at his disposal." I think not; and I believe all impartial men will be of the same mind.

"These are some of the extraordinary gifts, which Mr. W. claims." "I claim no extraordinary gift at all. Nor has any thing to the contrary been proved yet, so much as in a single instance."

Pray readers, observe again Mr. W's excellent defence: if says he, 'I believe things to be judgments which are not, I am to blame.' Here he pleads guilty again, and when the bishop tells him his judgments are fulminated with the air of one who had the divine vengeance at his disposal, all his answer is, 'I think not.'

Our readers may probably remember that the bishop in his Doctrine of Grace, told us a story, which bore very hard upon Mr. Wesley's moral character, a fact indeed of such a nature as must render him the object of universal contempt and aversion in the eyes of every unprejudiced and impartial man. This accusation it highly became him to get rid of, if he possibly could: we shall see by the following quotation how he has endeavoured to exculpate himself.

'Sunday, Aug. 7. 1737. I repelled Mrs. W. from the communion. Tuesday 9. I was required by Mr. bailiff Parker, to appear at the next court. Thurs. 11. Mr. Causton, her uncle,

cle, said to me, "give your reasons for repelling her before the whole congregation." I answered, "Sir, if you insist upon it, I will." But I heard no more of it. Afterwards he said (but not to me) "Mr. W. had repelled Sophy out of revenge: because he had made proposals of marriage to her which she rejected." Tues. 16. Mrs. W. made affidavit of it. Thurs. Sept. 1, a grand jury, prepared by Mr. Causton, found, that "John Wesley had broken the laws of the realm, by speaking and writing to Mrs. W. against her husband's consent, and by repelling her from the communion."

Friday 2. was the third court day, at which I appeared, since my being required so to do by Mr. Parker. I moved for an immediate hearing; but was put off till the next court-day. On the next court-day I appeared again, as also at the two courts following; but could not be heard. Thurs. Nov. 3. I appeared in court again: and yet again on Tues. Nov. 22. on which day Mr. C. desired to speak with me, and read me an affidavit in which it was affirmed, that I "abused Mr. C. in his own house, calling him liar, villain, and so on." It was likewise repeated, that I had been reprimanded at the last court, by Mr. C. as an enemy to and hinderer of the public peace.

"My friends agreed with me, that the time we looked for was now come. And the next morning, calling on Mr. C. I told him, "I designed to set out for England immediately."

Friday, Dec. 2. I proposed to set out for Carolina about noon. But about ten, the magistrates sent for me, and told me, "I must not go out of the province; for I had not answered the allegations laid against me." I replied, "I have appeared at six or seven courts, in order to answer them. But I was not suffered so to do." After a few more words, I said, "You use me very ill. And so you do the trustees. You know your business, and I know mine."

"In the afternoon, they published an order, forbidding any to assist me in going out of the province. But I knew I had no more business there. So as soon as evening prayer was over, the tide then serving, I took boat at the Bluff for Carolina.

"This is the plain account of the matter. I need only add a remark or two on the pleasantries of my censurer. "He had recourse, as usual, to his revelations. I consulted my friends, whether God did not call me to England." Not by revelations: these were out of the question; but by clear, strong reasons. "The magistrate soon quickened his pace, by declaring him an enemy to the public peace." No; that senseless assertion of Mr. C. made me go neither sooner nor later. "The reader has seen him long languish for persecution." What, before November 1737? I never languished for it either before or since.



since. But I submit to what pleases God. "To hide his poltrony in a bravado, he gave public notice of his apostolical intention." Kind and civil! I may be excused from taking notice of what follows. It is equally serious and genteel.

"Had his longings for persecution been without hypocrisy"—The same mistake throughout. I never longed or professed to long for it at all. But if I had professed it ever since I returned from Georgia, what was done before I returned, could not prove that profession to be hypocrisy. So all this ribaldry serves no end; only to throw much dirt, if haply some may stick.

Meantime, how many untruths are here in one page? 1. "He made the path doubly perplex for his followers." 2. He left them to answer for his crimes. 3. He longed for persecution. 4. He went as far as Georgia for it. 5. The truth of his mission was questioned by the magistrate, and 6. decried by the people, 7. For his false morals: 8. The gospel was wounded through the sides of its pretended missionary. 9. The first Christian preachers offered up themselves: (so did I.) Instead of this, our paltry mimic"—*Bona verba!* Surely a writer should reverence himself, how much soever he despises his opponent. So upon the whole, this proof of my hypocrisy, is as lame as the three former.

This we suppose Mr. Wesley looks upon as a complete answer. But does he deny the fact? does he prove that he never made proposals of marriage to the girl, or that he did not repel her out of revenge, does he deny that he ran away? no, he only says, he had good reasons for it (so to be sure he had) and that he knew he had no more business there.

We will not trouble our readers with any more of Mr. Wesley's arguments in defence of himself. That part of his answer which contains the operations of the holy spirit is equally frivolous and absurd, principally extracted from his two letters to Dr. Church, printed long ago, and introduced here only, as we suppose, to swell out the volume.

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ART. XI. *An Answer to the Rev. Mr. John Wesley's Letter to William, Lord Bishop of Gloucester; concerning the Charges alleged against him and his Doctrine, in a Book lately published, entitled, The Doctrine of Grace, or the Operation of the Holy Spirit vindicated from the Insults of Infidelity, &c. In a Letter to the Rev. Mr. John Wesley. By Samuel Chandler. 8vo. Pr. 6d. Nicoll.*

**M**IRACLES will never cease. Behold, admiring reader, a presbyterian taking up the cudgels in defence of the established church against the invading methodist. The bishop of Glou-

Gloucester attacks Mr. Wesley, Mr. Wesley answers him, and who replies? not the bishop, but Mr. Samuel Chandler. But two to one is odds at foot-ball, and it is hardly fair play for both to fall upon poor John at once. Mr. Wesley had indeed said so little to the purpose, that the bishop, we imagine, did not think it worthy of a reply, and a less able writer than Mr. Chandler might have easily confuted him. Mr. C. in the little tract before us, plainly proves the falsity of Mr. W's assertions, the invalidity of his arguments, and the absurdity and inconsistency of his whole conduct. We shall make no extracts from this performance, because it would be doing an injury to the author, as in quotations from detached passages the words of the bishop, Wesley, and Mr. Chandler, must be so blended together, that the reader would not well know what to make of them. We shall only therefore observe, that the remarks made by Mr. Chandler are sensible and judicious, and such as Mr. Wesley will find it very difficult with all his art to gainsay or confute.

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ART. XII. *An Essay on Preaching. Lately wrote in Answer to the Request of a young Minister. By the Author of Letters on Theron and Aspasio. 8vo. Pr. 6 d. Johnson.*

**T**HIS essay seems to be the crude indigested performance of one of our modern *fanatics*, who is desirous of introducing a new system of Christianity adapted to their peculiar tenets and opinions, very different in many essential points from those held by the regular established church. From the title of it, one would be led to imagine that it contained some rules and directions concerning pulpit-oratory; instead of which, we find a tedious harangue, supposed to be delivered by what our author calls a preacher of Paul's gospel. Amongst other extraordinary doctrines broached in this discourse, we meet with the following:

‘If you who have already sinned hope to live by your repentance, take care that your repentance be sincere, uniform, effectual, and permanent. Let your repentance be such an effectual turning away from all sin, as to admit of no return in any one instance. Let it be such a turning to righteousness as to admit of no failure. For the moment you fail in any one instance, all your former righteousness goes for nothing. Harken not to those teachers, who would persuade you to compendize or abridge your duty into one or more acts of faith, contrition, or repentance. This would be making void, yea mocking both the law and the gospel; for neither of these  
acknowledge



acknowledge that for righteousness which comes short of perfection. Do not then imagine, that God will accept of any righteousness short of perfection, be it called sincerity, or by any other name. If you pretend then to do any thing less or more, in order to acceptance with God, you must do every thing. God is not to be mocked. Go not about to impose on yourselves, by substituting, instead of the perfect obedience God's law requires, any ambiguous, equivocal acts or motions of the heart; for you cannot do your duty to purpose, unless in plain terms, and in good earnest, you obey every divine precept, performing every thing required, and avoiding every thing forbidden by the divine law.—On the other hand, if there be any of you who, after many repeated trials, have found all your most serious endeavours to do your duty to prove in the issue both unsuccessful and deceitful, and have accordingly been brought to despair of so much as thinking one good thought, if it could save your souls for ever, then certainly you have great reason to bless God for that gospel, which evinces, with the highest kind of demonstration, that all is already done.\*

Here our author tells us, in the true *damning* stile of the *Methodists*, that *the moment we fail in any one instance, all our former righteousness goes for nothing*. It would be very difficult to reconcile such doctrine as this with the gospel of Christ. The most eminent divines of our church have been clearly of another opinion, and have always recommended and enforced the mercy and placability of the Deity, who, as the late archbishop Herring \* observes, though of purer eyes than to behold iniquity, has yet assured us, that if we endeavour faithfully and sincerely to do his will, and from human frailty fail in the performance, will consider, compassionate, and forgive our miscarriages, through the mediation and redemption of Christ Jesus.

In the following paragraph this gentleman describes and pays his compliments to his brethren in these extraordinary terms:

\* The world (says he) can patiently bear with a man holding almost any peculiarity of opinion, while it has no very uncommon effect on his conduct: but the appearance of a society closely united by, and at all hazards firmly maintaining that divine truth which condemns the world, is a sight which the world never did, never can endure with patience. It proves an intolerable eye-sore to them, galling them in the tenderest

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\* See his sermon before the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, preached in 1737.

part, and provoking them to persecute, as far as civil government, or other restraints interposed by Providence, will allow: so that however they may be restrained, the same disposition to treat Christ's disciples with all manner of hatred and contempt, will still be manifest, till Christ appear the second time to take vengeance on his adversaries.

It was the will of Christ, that his true disciples should always be thus obnoxious to the world, even as they were all predestinated to be conformed to his image. Paul joyfully concludes, that the word of God had obtained its proper effect in the Thessalonian church, because he found them suffering like things from their countrymen, as the Judæan churches did from the Jews. And it is evident from many places of the New Testament, that it cannot appear that the word of God has its proper effect in any other age or country, but where Christ's disciples are distinguished from their countrymen, and obnoxious to their hatred, in like manner as Christ and his followers were.

After abusing what he calls the zealous orthodox clergy in a few pages, the pamphlet concludes thus:

'May I presume then that you will fairly make the trial, and that so soon as you can find two or three hearty friends in the faith, you will closely join yourself to them, in determined separation from all others, waiting on the Lord by prayer and supplication, till he increase your number, and grant you the complete order of a church? Then your very situation, both in regard to the concerns of your union among yourselves, and your opposition to your common adversaries, will shew you a great propriety in many passages of the New Testament, that you could not otherwise well perceive; because it would realize to you the situation of the first churches, and gradually lead you into the same views that filled the minds of the apostles when they wrote to the churches. You will then find no occasion for the common way of preaching to saints and sinners; for you will soon find the saints of the parish to be the greatest enemies to you, and to the gospel maintained by you. But if you think of saints in the same sense with Paul, it will be found, that the doctrine fittest to heal the conscience of the greatest sinner is the best food for them; for holiness consists in the love of that very doctrine.'

Here, we find, he exhorts his young friend to a *determined separation* from the regular clergy, till God shall *increase the number of the elect*, and *grant them the complete order of a church*. This is speaking plainer and more openly than any of his fraternity, and evidently points out the intention and design of the

Methodists,



Methodists, which is indisputably nothing less than to overthrow the established church, and build up another according to their own plan; and, to say the truth, if a speedy stop be not put to the progress of enthusiasm and fanaticism, we know not how soon such an event may take place amongst us.

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ART. XIII. *A philosophical Survey of Nature: In which the long agitated Question, concerning human Liberty and Necessity, is endeavoured to be fully determined from incontestable Phenomena.* 8vo. Pr. 2s. Nicholl.

THE author of this tract upon Liberty and Necessity observes, in entering upon his subject, that revelation is as improperly introduced into a philosophical disquisition, as philosophical reasoning would be when we are attending to the dictates of revelation. 'Tis evident from hence, that he is no friend to revealed religion, as he plainly insinuates, that it is neither founded upon evidence, nor supported by rational argument.

This appears still farther from the following observation, which is obviously subversive of the Scripture account of creation. 'Peremptorily to assert, says he, that the eternal first cause, at a certain point of time, but yesterday, as if he had just awoke from a sleep without beginning, caused matter to start into being from nothing!' may be very consonant to revelation: but though revelation must be granted to be decisive in all points of information communicated by it; yet to argue from Scripture and to argue from nature are quite different modes of reasoning. In page the ninth he maintains, that the received accounts of the origin of the world are very naturally resolved into the obscure, traditional relations of the first beginnings of settlement after very great, but, respecting the whole earth, partial changes, which may have desolated extensive regions. Thus does the author put the Scripture account of the origin of the world upon a footing with that to be met with in the Shaster, the Zundavastow, Ovid's Metamorphosis, and other fabulous relations of the heathens. This leaves no room to doubt of his principles; and indeed the doctrine of absolute necessity, which he contends for, seems to run counter to the whole tenour of Scripture, though certain Christian sects have maintained something like it, under the name of Predestination.

Our author lays the foundation of his system by observing, that the whole material world is under the influence of necessity, being governed by fixed and unalterable laws. Thus the principle

principle of attraction operates without ceasing throughout the universe, and the periodical return of the earth in it's annual orbit to the same distances and positions respecting the sun, necessarily occasions the successive revolutions of the seasons; which alternately regulate the various circumstances and modes of vegetation; necessarily produce those periodical changes in the face of nature, which are yearly observed, and as necessarily influence animals and men to accommodate themselves to the various changes they experience and expect.

This writer then proceeds to shew that plants are actuated by necessity in vegetation, a point which, 'tis apprehended, few will dispute with him; but he, at the same time, insinuates, that every vegetable is endowed with some degree of sensation; an opinion which we cannot help looking upon as altogether absurd and erroneous. Having established the necessity to which vegetables are subjected, he endeavours to make it appear, that animals are in the same state; and indeed, if Descartes, without being arraigned of absurdity, maintained them to be machines, our author may well be allowed to represent them as utterly destitute of freedom or choice. He instances the horse; and shews, in a satisfactory manner, that from the time of its birth, till vitality ceases, all its actions are determined by some irresistible impulse. He continues to prove the same with regard to the several different species of animals, till he comes to the ourang-outang, which makes the nearest approach to man in external shape. In the last place, he exerts himself to the utmost, to prove that man is a necessary agent; and the substance of his arguments is as follows: 'The various connexions and relations which obtain among mankind are productive of a variety of impulses, which incessantly spring from the various circumstances attending them, and these necessarily determine us to the preference of one motive to another.' Hence, in the opinion of our author, motives actuate the human mind as necessarily as those qualities of matter, which are evident to our senses, operate upon each other. 'Nothing, continues he, being clearer, than that with regard to every thought, word, and deed, in every instance that can be produced; persons *so constituted* in body and mind, and precisely *so circumstanced*, could not have willed and acted *otherwise* than was done.'

How these *ipse dixits* will be received by the public, we shall not take upon us to determine; but cannot help thinking that the author would have done well to have expressed himself in a less dogmatical manner upon a subject which that great metaphysician Mr. Lock owned to be above his comprehension.

In



In page 103, he expresses himself in a manner still more supercilious and decisive upon this abstruse point. After having established it as a system that the several different species of animals are absolutely governed by the necessary determinations constitutionally assigned to them, he adds, 'Man is not omitted in or beyond the limits of the general system.' His field of action he indeed acknowledges to be much more extensive than that of any other being upon earth; but, at the same time, he asserts, that it is as little in his power to controul the impulses which actuate every function he boasts, as in that of the reptile he treads under his feet.

Thus have we laid before the reader whatever has occurred to us worth notice in this tract; and though we by no means approve of his principles, or adopt his way of thinking, we cannot but acknowledge, that he discovers a great deal of acuteness in ratiocination, and appears neither defective in genius nor learning. We therefore cannot help lamenting that he has misapplied his talents, by exercising them upon a fruitless speculation, in which the knowledge of truth is unattainable by human reason.

ART. XIV. *Philaster, a Tragedy. Written by Beaumont and Fletcher. With Alterations. As it is acted at the Theatre-Royal in Drury-Lane. 8vo. Pr. 1s. Tonson.*

WE are not sure, even in this enlightened critical age, whether there is not a kind of fashionable nonsense, that prevails both in conversation and writing; and, is absolutely necessary to render the author as well as the companion agreeable. Beaumont and Fletcher were perhaps the greatest masters of this bewitching *badinage* that ever wrote. But, however sterling their wit may be, (and nothing can be more so) it required an alloy of fashion to give it malleability; and the great labour of any gentleman, who undertakes a publication of the nature of that before us, lies in the sieve and the crucible, in separating the dross from the metal. We have in the first act of this play a pregnant specimen of what we have advanced, in a scene between three ladies, which Mr. Colman has most judiciously omitted, as he has done several other scenes, and speeches of the same stamp, in this publication; and particularly the quaint observations made by the bystanders and attendants upon the conversation which passes among their principals. These strictures are sometimes very witty, but seldom proper; and they perhaps never ought to be introduced into tragedy.

Thus

Thus far in general with regard to the editor of Philaster, as it is now acted, who, we cannot help declaring, has introduced it on the stage with as much propriety, and to as much advantage as it possibly could admit of. The prologue, which is a good one, is written by Mr. Colman, therefore we have taken the liberty of supposing him to be the editor; and the stupid attack made upon it will serve equally against the best prologue that ever was wrote as against it. Let us, for instance, criticise Mr. Pope's to Cato, in the manner of this critic. *To wake the soul*, an admirable discovery indeed! Who, before Mr. Pope, ever discovered that the soul was asleep? Now he is a nurse; next line he becomes a rinker or a taylor—*To mend the heart*! excellent. In short, this is a species of criticism to which the greatest poetic genius is, perhaps, the most exposed, and is disgraceful to liberal taste. But to return to the play itself.

As to the particulars of the alterations, the reader may learn them from the editor's own words.——' Though the inaccuracies and licentiousness of the piece were inducements (according to the *incudi reddere* of Horace) to put it on the anvil again, yet nothing has been added more than was absolutely necessary, to make it move easily on the new hinge, whereon it now turns: Nor has any thing been omitted, except what was supposed to have been likely to obscure its merit, or injure its success. The pen was drawn, without the least hesitation, over every scene now expunged, except the first scene of the third act, as it stands in the original; in regard to which, the part, that Philaster sustains in it, occasioned some pause: but, on examination, it seemed that Dion's falsification of facts in that scene was inconsistent with the rest of his character, though very natural in such a person as Megra: and though we have in our times seen the sudden and instantaneous transitions from one passion to another remarkably well represented on the stage, yet Philaster's emotions appeared impossible to be exhibited with any conformity to truth or nature. It was therefore thought adviseable to omit the whole scene; and it is hoped, that this omission will not be disapproved, and that it will not appear to have left any void or chasm in the action; since the imputed falsehood of Arethusa, after being so industriously made publick to the whole court, might very naturally be imagined to come to the knowledge of Philaster in a much shorter interval, than is often supposed to elapse between the acts; or even between the scenes of some of our old plays.

The scenes in the fourth act, wherein Philaster, according to the original play, wounds Arethusa and Bellario, and from  
which



which the piece took its second title of Love lies a bleeding, have always been censured by the criticks. They breathe too much of that spirit of blood, and cruelty, and horror, of which the English tragedy hath often been accused. The hero's wounding his mistress hurt the delicacy of most; and his maiming Bellario sleeping, in order to save himself from his pursuers, offended the generosity of all. This part of the fable, therefore, so injurious to the character of Philaster, it was judged absolutely requisite to alter; and a new turn has been given to all those circumstances: but the change has been effected by such simple means; and with so much reverence to the original, that there are hardly ten lines added on account of the alteration.

'The rest of the additions or alterations may be seen at once, by comparing the present play with the original; if the reader does not, on such occasions, of himself too easily discover the patch-work of a modern hand.'

But though we must admit, that the play, in its present appearance, is a far more rational and elegant exhibition than the public could have well expected from the licentiousness and luxuriancy of the original, yet we cannot help giving the editor one word of advice, which may be of use to him, if he should ever, as we hope he will, oblige the world with another amended play. What we mean, is, that he should not dip his pen too rashly into those cream-pots of criticism that attend the last edition of Beaumont and Fletcher's plays; and that he should not take upon trust the corrections of those who will not take upon trust even the authors own expressions. We have a most flagrant instance of the delicacy, or rather squeamishness, of those gentlemen in the second speech of the play, and we are sorry to observe, that their alteration has inadvertently, no doubt, been retained by Mr. Colman. Says the original, 'it was boldly published;' says Messieurs Theobald; Simpson, and co. 'that is nonsense;' and therefore read, 'it was *loudly* published.' Now, we cannot help being of opinion, that to this day, in the common acceptation of speech, to say that a thing is *boldly* published, means no more than that it is *confidently* published, and the word *boldly* is peculiarly proper in this passage; and that to say a thing is *loudly* published, is as tautologous as to say, that it was *publickly* published. We should be extremely glad, notwithstanding all the inconveniencies which Mr. Colman had to encounter from the original construction of this play, to see others of the antient standard, which, as long as genius subsists, must triumph over fashion, reconciled in the same manner to decency and probability.

Upon the whole, we are of opinion that the lines added by the editor, either to elucidate, or to connect, the sense and con-

duct of the play, are happily hit off, and in the spirit of the original; and that its authors, were they now alive, would thank the editor for his emendations.

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ART. XV. *The Castrated Sheet in the sixth Volume of Biographia Britannica, containing a curious letter of Sir Thomas Hanmer, wherein is discovered the first Rise of the present Bishop of Gloucester's Quarrel with that Bart. about his Edition of Shakespear's Plays. To which is prefixed, an Impartial Account of the extraordinary Means employed to suppress this remarkable Letter. By a Proprietor of that Work. Fol. Pr. 1s. 6d. Pridden.*

WE shall endeavour to open the scene of iniquity, which introduces this castrated sheet, without deviating much from the account of it by the editor, that son of perdition and penitence; after premising, that the attempt made upon the late bishop of Winchester's purse by Fournier (*Vide Crit. Rev. Vol. V. p. 23.*) was not more flagitious than that made upon the present bishop of Gloucester's character by Nichols. The story, in short, is as follows. He had got into his hands, (it is not material by what means) three letters, which we believe are originals, of the late Sir Thomas Hanmer. Two of them are harmless and unimportant; but the third conveys more than an indirect charge upon the bishop of Gloucester, as if his lordship had robbed the spittal; that is, that Mr. Warburton had paid a fly, designing, visit to Sir Thomas Hanmer; and had so far abused that gentleman's hospitality, as, from the inspection of the baronet's papers, during a week, to purloin from them whatever he thought proper for an edition which he was preparing of Shakespear's plays.

This letter was communicated by Nichols to the bishop, Jan. 29, 1761, who sent it the same day, with his observations, to one of the principal proprietors of the *Biographia Britannica*. His lordship's strictures appeared so full and satisfactory, that even Nichols agreed to omit \* Sir T. Hanmer's letter. The propriety of this suppression must be evident to every man of sense and candour, if he reads the letter of the baronet, whose impotence was not better known to Hymen than to Apollo.

Nichols, we are informed by persons of reputation, came several times to the bishop, who would have nothing to do with him: he undoubtedly expected some great consideration (of what kind we shall not say) by having this letter in his possession, and at liberty to publish it or not, as he should think

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\* Consequently the bishop's refutation of Sir T. Hanmer's letter remained in the hands of one of the proprietors, who communicated it to us, and which it is now necessary to publish, in justice to his lordship.

proper;



proper; but, finding himself disappointed, he, in revenge, published the castrated sheet now before us, with extracts from the bishop's preface to his Shakespear, and the most malicious insinuations of his lordship's indirect practices. The trash he throws out on this occasion is not only below notice, but contempt; and our transcribing it would be the propagating of scandal and dulness.

The first letter which Nichols wrote to his lordship is pretty much in the terms of his narrative. His second letter, which is printed along with the castrated sheet, is signed "Philip Nichols, *a poor penitent thief*," for reasons which he himself can best explain; and is full of the unimportant importance, and the despicable insinuations, of a busy neglected scribbler. It therefore remains for us to let the reader judge for himself, by laying before him the only point in dispute, which is contained in the baronet's charge, (and which, by the bye, is addressed to a person, not very likely to have given his lordship an opportunity to have vindicated himself, and who, very possibly, did not believe one single word of the allegations it contained) and his lordship's answer to the same. The baronet's letter, which is addressed to Dr. Smith at Oxford, is as follows.

Milden-hall near Newmarket, Suffolk, October 28, 1742.

Dear Sir,

I have much doubted with myself whether it were proper for me to return an answer to the favour of your letter, till after hearing again from you or Dr. Shippen. There seem to arise some difficulties with respect to the design of printing a new edition of Shakespear, and I beg it may be laid aside, if you are not fully satisfied, that some advantage may arise from it to the university; for I have no end in view to myself to make me desire it. I am satisfied there is no edition coming or likely to come from Warburton, but it is a report raised to serve some little purpose or other, of which I see there are many on foot. I have reason to know that gentleman is very angry with me, for a cause of which I think I have no reason to be ashamed, or he to be proud. My acquaintance with him began upon an application from himself, and at his request the present bishop of Salisbury introduced him to me for this purpose only, as was then declared, that as he had many observations upon Shakespear then lying by him, over and above those printed in Theobald's book, he much desired to communicate them to me, that I might judge whether any of them worthy to be added to those emendations, which he understood I had long been making upon that author. I received his offer with all the civility I could: upon which a long correspondence began by letters, in which he explained his sense upon many passages,

passages, which sometimes I thought just, but mostly wild and out of the way. Afterwards he made a journey hither on purpose to see my books; he staid about a week with me, and had the inspection of them: and, all this while I had no suspicion of any other design, in all the pains he took, but to perfect a correct text in Shakespeare, of which he seemed very fond. But not long after, the views of interest began to shew themselves, several hints were dropt of the advantage he might receive from publishing the work thus corrected; but as I had no thoughts at all of making it public, so I was more averse to yield to it in such a manner as was likely to produce a paltry edition, by making it the means only of getting a greater sum of money by it. Upon this, he flew into a great rage, and there is an end of the story; with which I have thought it best to make you acquainted, that, as you mention the working of his friends, you may judge the better of what you see and hear from them, and may make what use you please of the truth of facts, which I have now laid before you.

‘As to my own particular, I have no aim to pursue in this affair: I propose neither honour, reward, or thanks, and should be very well pleased to have the books continue upon their shelf, in my own private closet. If it is thought they may be of use or pleasure to the public, I am willing to part with them out of my hands, and to add, for the honour of Shakespeare, some decorations and embellishments at my own expence. It will be an unexpected pleasure to me, if they can be made in any degree profitable to the university, to which I shall always retain a gratitude, a regard, and reverence: but that I may end as I began, I beg the favour of you, if upon more mature consideration among yourselves, you see reason to discourage you from proceeding in this affair, that you will give it over, and not look upon yourselves to be the more obliged to prosecute it from any steps already taken with,

‘Sir, your most humble and obedient servant,

‘Tho. Hanmer.’

The bishop’s strictures on this charge, which were designed to be printed in the *Biographia Britannica*, if the sheet had not been cancelled, are as follow:

‘Sir Thomas Hanmer’s letter from Mildenhall to Oxford, Oct. 28, 1742, is one continued falsehood from beginning to end.

‘It is false that my acquaintance with him began upon an application from me to him. It began on an application of the present bishop of London to me, in behalf of Sir T. Hanmer; and, as I understood, at Sir T. Hanmer’s desire. The thing speaks itself. It was publicly known that I had written notes on *Shakespear*, because part of them were printed; few people



people knew that Sir T. Hanmer had : I certainly did not know ; nor, indeed, whether he was living or dead.

‘ The falsehood is still viler (because it sculks only under an insinuation) that I made a journey to him to Mildenhall, without invitation : whereas it was at his earnest and repeated request, as appears by his letters, which I have still by me.

‘ It is false that the views of interest began to shew themselves in me to this *disinterested gentleman*. My resentment at Sir Thomas H’s behaviour began on the following occasion : a bookseller in London, of the best reputation, had wrote me word, that Sir Thomas Hanmer had been with him, to propose his printing an edition of Shakespear on the following conditions ; of its being pompously printed with cuts, (as it afterwards was at Oxford) at the expence of the said bookseller, who, besides, should pay one hundred guineas, or some such sum, to a friend of his, (Sir T. Hanmer’s) who had transcribed the *glossary* for him. But the bookseller, understanding that he made use of many of my notes, and that I knew nothing of the project, thought fit to send me this account. On which, I wrote to Sir Th. Hanmer, upbraiding him with his behaviour, and demanding, out of his hands, all the letters I had written to him on the subject ; which he unwillingly complied with, after cavilling about the right of property in those letters, for which he had (he said) paid the postage.

When the bookseller would not deal with him on these terms, he applied to the university of Oxford ; and was at the expence of his purse in procuring cuts for his edition ; and at the expence of his reputation in employing a number of my emendations on the text, without my knowledge or consent : and this behaviour was what occasioned Mr. Pope’s perpetuating the memory of the Oxford edition of Shakespear in the *Dunciad*.

‘ This is a true and exact account of the whole affair, which I never thought worth while afterwards to complain of, but to the bishop of London, at whose desire I lent Sir Thomas Hanmer my assistance : nor should ever have revived it, but for the publication of this scandalous letter, *sent from Oxford to this Philip Nichols*, to be inserted in the *Biographia Britannica*.

Jan. 29, 1761.

W. G.’

It would be presumption in us to add any thing to this vindication ; and shall therefore conclude with observing, that we are happy in having the means in our power to justify his lordship from the virulence of an attack, equally malicious and unsupported.

**ART. XVI.** *The Natural History of Birds, with the Method of bringing up and managing those of the singing Kind, Vol. II. The History of Fishes and Serpents, including Sea-Turtles, Crustaceous and Shell-Fishes; with their medicinal Uses, Vol. III. making the second and third of a general Course of Natural History. By R. Brookes, M. D. 12mo. Pr. 7s. Newbery.*

**A**S we promised to say something of each of these volumes as they successively appeared, the second and third, being now published, remind us of our engagements. In the second volume, which treats of birds, the author has chiefly followed the system of Ray, but with such retrenchments and additions, as his own judgment might have suggested. However, the universal approbation which the system of Linnæus has met with, seems in some measure to have shook his resolution, in following our countryman's plan. He therefore, at the end of this volume, left, as he expresses it, any thing should be wanting, has given us the ornithological system of Linnæus entire, and leaves the reader to chuse which he shall follow. All method in this subject is only so far useful as it helps the learner's memory. By which of these two methods the learner is most likely to be benefited, we must not take upon us to determine; some minds, like some optic-glasses, draw order out of seeming irregularity, while others turn the exactest method into confusion.

But whatever our author's method be, upon the whole, he is very exact and regular in each of his descriptions, and often quits the dry, scientific tone, to address the imagination.

There are some birds, says he, which may properly be called the inhabitants of every part of the earth; but, in general, every climate has birds peculiar to itself alone. The feathered inhabitants of the temperate zone chiefly excel in the music of their notes; those of the torrid zone in the bright and vivid colours of their plumage; the frigid zone, on the other hand, where the seas abound with fish, are stocked with fowls of the aquatic kind, in much greater variety than are to be found in our parts of Europe.

In general, every bird resorts to those climates where its food is found in plenty, and always takes care to hatch its young at those places, and in those seasons, where provisions are in the greatest abundance. The large birds, and those of the aquatic kind, chuse places as remote as possible from man, as their food is different from that which is cultivated by human industry; some birds, which have only the serpent to fear, build their nests in such a manner as to have them depending at the end of a small bough, and the entrance from below; but the little birds, which live upon fruits and corn, are found in the



the greatest plenty in the most populous countries, and are too often unwelcome intruders upon the fruits of human labours. In making their nests, therefore, the little birds use every art to conceal them from man, while the great birds use every precaution to render their's inaccessible to wild beasts, or vermine. The unerring instinct which guides every species in contriving the most proper habitation for hatching their young, demands our observation. In hot tropical climates nests of the same kind are made with less art, and of less warm materials, than in the temperate zone; for the sun in some measure assists the business of incubation. In general, however, they build them with great art, and line them with such substances as keep or communicate warmth to their eggs. Nothing can exceed their patience while hatching; neither the calls of hunger nor the near approach of danger could drive them from the nest; and though they have been found fat upon beginning to sit, yet before the incubation is over the female is usually wasted to a skeleton. The male ravens and crows, while the hens are sitting, take care to provide them with food; while other birds, such as pigeons and sparrows, take their turns, the male relieving the female at proper intervals. Sometimes, however, the eggs acquire a degree of heat too great for the purposes of hatching; in such cases the hen leaves them to cool a little, and then returns with her usual perseverance and pleasure. When the young brood comes forth, nothing can exceed the industry and the seeming pride of the parents; the most timid becomes courageous in their defence, and provides them with food proper for their age or kind. Birds of the rapacious kind become at this season more than ordinarily ravenous, and those of the granivorous sorts discontinue their singing, entirely taken up in procuring subsistence for their young. Of all the birds, the ostrich is the greatest, and the American humming-bird the least. In these the gradations of nature are strongly marked; for the ostrich in some respects approaches the nature of that class of animals immediately placed above him; namely, quadrupeds, being covered with hair, and incapable of flying; while the humming-bird, on the other hand, approaches that of insects. These extremities of the species, however, are rather objects of human curiosity than use; it is the middle orders of birds, which man has taken care to propagate and maintain; these largely administer to his necessities and pleasure, and some birds are even capable of attachment to the person that feeds them. How far they may be instructed by long assiduity, is obvious from a late instance of a Canary-bird, which was shewn in London, and which had been taught to pick up the letters of the alphabet at the word of command. Upon the whole, however, they are inferior to quadrupeds

in their sagacity: they are possessed of fewer of those powers which look like reason, and seem, in all their actions, rather impelled by instinct than guided by choice.

The third volume, which treats of fishes, is not less entertaining than the former. Perhaps some readers may think the author rather too particular in his descriptions; but to mention every fish was necessary for the completion of his design. And we must do this volume the justice to say, that it is the completest history of fishes that we have seen: Yet we would not be misunderstood, as if we included the history of shells in our idea of ichthyology; very many, and, among the rest, our countryman Lyster, have given much more extensive information upon that part of the subject. Brookes seems more assiduously employed in describing the animal itself, than the tenement it inhabits. To investigate the life of the animal, is a study becoming a philosopher; to hunt after a variety in the shell, is but the employment of idlers. In short, our compiler's judgment every-where appears; and as natural history is now, by a kind of national establishment, become the favourite study of the times, this work may be used, either as a companion to the learned, or a tutor to the learner.

#### ART. XVII. ENGRAVING.

**T**HE contemplation of the rise and progress of the arts and sciences must afford more real satisfaction and instruction, than a history of a thousand centuries of battles and sieges, which serve no other end, but to enure mankind to the slaughter and butchery of one another. We were reflecting on the great improvements made of late years in the art of engraving, and the pleasure resulting therefrom led us naturally into the above train of thinking.

Sir John Harrington, the translator of Ariosto, who lived in the time of queen Elizabeth, speaks of the prints (or pictures as he calls them) which embellish his work, in the following manner; "As for the pictures, they are all cut in brasse, and most of them by the best workmen in that kinde, that have bene in this land this manie yeares: yet, I will not praise them too much, because I gave direction for their making, and, in regard thereof, I may be thought partiall; but this I may truely say, that (for mine own part) I have not seene anie made in England better, nor (indeede) anie of this kinde, in anie booke, except it were in a treatise, set forth by that profound man, maister Broughton, the last yeare, upon the Revelation, in which there are some three or four pretie figures (in



(in octavo) cut in brass very workmanly. As for other bookes that I have seene in this realme, either in Latin or English, with pictures, as Livy, Gesner, Alciat's emblemes, a booke de Spectris in Latin, and (in our tong) the Chronicles, the booke of Martyrs, the booke of Hauking and Hunting, and M. Whitney's excellent Emblemes, yet all their figures are cut in wood, and none in metall; and in that respect inferior to these, at least, (by the old proverbe) the more cost, the more worship. The use of the picture is evident, which is, that (having read over the booke) you may reade it (as it were again) in the very picture; and one thing is to be noted, which every one (haply) will not observe, namely, the perspective in every figure. For, the personages of men, the shapes of horses, and such like, are made large at the bottome, and lesser upward, as if you were to behold all the same in a plaine, that which is nearest seemes greatest, and the fardest shewes smallest, which is the chief art in picture."—So much for this worthy knight's workmanly pictures, which (haply) at this day, would have slept with the profound maister Broughton his treatise on the Revelation, had it not been for some little poetical merit in the translation of Orlando.

It is plain from what has been premised, that the art of engraving on copper, (or brass as the knight is pleased to call it) was but in its infancy in queen Elizabeth's time; in her successor, James the first's reign, one Gualtier, a Frenchman, engraved several of the cuts that are to the translation of Barclay's *Argenis*, which are well performed, and in a fine taste: the great Van Dyk appeared soon after, who sometimes handled the graver, to the no small honour of the art: since that time engraving has arrived to very great perfection. If the French are before us in history-engraving, we excel the whole world in that of landscape. France never made a figure in the last till our countryman Lawrence, (or Laurent, as he stiled himself) went among them. Under this ingenious man, Mr. Major studied, whose works are an honour to his country.

We have mentioned, in a former Number, the fine print of Niobe, engraved by Mr. Woollett; we shall not do justice to his very great merit, if we omit taking notice of a print just published as a companion to it: the subject is, Phaeton requesting the chariot of the Sun, one of the finest stories that ever engaged the pencil. Suppose the glowing steeds, snorting fire, and satiated with the juice of ambrosia, just harnessed to the chariot of the sun, by the nimble Hours, at the command of Apollo: Aurora too had that instant dispersed the darkness, which the God perceiving, says to his son, (whom he has been a long while dissuading from his rash design) "Haste, snatch the reins; or if you have a mind that can be moved by advice,  
take

take my counsel, not my chariot"—This is the point of time intended by the painter; but where is the radiant chariot, drawn by the flaming steeds, and held in by the Hours, till the charioteer takes the reins?—There is one man that seems to possess abilities capable of doing justice to this sublime subject, one who has already painted part of this presumptuous youth's story; we mean the painter of that finely conceived picture of a horse frightened at sight of a lion, that was exhibited at Spring Garden in May last.—But to our purpose:—The landscape from whence Mr. Woollet's print is engraved is a Sun-rise; at some distance is a building opposed to the Sun, which has a beautiful effect: the scene is otherwise diversified with ruins of palaces, rivers, and bridges, and shepherds attending their cattle. Upon the foreground is placed Phaeton on one knee before Apollo; and, on each side are some nymphs, sitting on the ground. The engraver has shewn all his art in the sky, and in the rays of the sun, which strike over and about the building; and we never before saw the light and shadow so well preserved in any print so very delicately engraved.

## Monthly CATALOGUE.

Art. 18. *The Enlargement of the Mind. Epistle I. To General Crauford. Written at Belvidere, 1763. By J. Langhorne, 4to. Pr. 1s. Becket and De Hondt.*

THE ingenious Mr. Langhorne, who has already obliged the public with several agreeable productions, has, in the epistle before us, turned his poetical abilities to the best and noblest purpose, and given us some excellent moral reflections, in very good verse. We cannot, at the same time, help wishing that the observations, which we meet with in this little poem, had been artfully woven into some uniform and regular work of a larger extent, as they seem at present to want nothing but order and connection to recommend them. The *Enlargement of the Mind* is rather a quaint and unpromising title. The poem has, notwithstanding, on the whole, great share of merit, as our readers will see from the following extract.

‘ Shall the dull inmate of pedantic walls,  
On whose old walk the sunbeam seldom falls,  
Who knows of nature, and of man no more  
Than fills some page of antiquated lore——  
Shall he, in words and terms profoundly wise,  
The better knowledge of the world despise,  
Think wisdom center'd in a false degree,  
And scorn the scholar of humanity?’



It is impossible to read the last line without admiring the *Scholar of Humanity*, as a happy expression, and at the same time lamenting, that the line before it is so indifferent, as we cannot possibly conjecture what Mr. L. means by a *false degree*.

There is something very spirited and nervous in Mr. Langhorne's address to truth.

'Immortal Truth! O from thy radiant shrine,  
Where light created first essay'd to shine.  
Where clustring stars eternal beams display,  
And gems ethereal drink the golden day,  
To chase this moral, clear this sensual night,  
O shed one ray of thy celestial light!  
Teach us, while wandering thro' this vale below  
We know but little, that we little know,  
One beam to mole-ey'd Prejudice convey,  
Let Pride perceive one mortifying ray.  
Thy glass to fools, to infidels apply,  
And all the dimness of the mental eye.'

The epistle concludes thus:

'Twas not in lustrums of long counted years  
That swell th' alternate reign of hopes and fears.  
Not in the splendid scenes of pain and strife,  
That Wisdom plac'd the dignity of life;  
To study Nature was the task assign'd,  
And learn from her th' Enlargement of the Mind,  
Learn from her works whatever Truth admires,  
And sleep in death with satisfied desires.'

Art. 19. *Poematia: Partim Latine scripta, Partim Reddita.* 4to,  
6d. Doddsley.

This collection of little poems extends but to twelve pages. Those who have a taste for Latin verse and classical expression will think them well worthy of their perusal: the following version of the famous song of Arno's Vale, may suffice for a specimen.

'Has ubi contigimus valles, Lucinda, beatas,  
Arnus quas nitidis argenteus irrigat undis;  
Gratos ire dies, securique otia ruris  
Certatim lufit Corydon & Phyllis avenâ.  
Suave melos praeter solitum cecinere volucres,  
Uberiorque suos mirata est Vineâ foetus;  
Omnia laetari; & seros mansura per annos  
Arninas inter credendum gaudia valles.  
Sed postquam abstulerat non exorabile fatum  
Pastorumque decus, Te, praesidiumque, Palaemon;  
Protinus Arnigenas campis detrussit a vitis,  
Gens Arctoa virû, patrio gens durior astro.  
Jam lepor, ingeniumque jacent; nec, ut ante, canorem

Agrestis

Agrestis bibit aure tuum, Lucinda, juvenus.

Musis gloria nulla; Getae dant jura colonis.

Arne, vale; & tecum valeant tua dulcia Tempe.'

The iron race is happily imitated by the

'patrio gens durior astro.'

but the two last lines in the Latin are much inferior to the original,

Art. 20. *Islington: A Poem. Addressed to Mr. Benjamin Stapp. To which are subjoined several other Poetical Essays by the same Author. 4to. Pr. 1s. Flexney.*

This poem is extremely well worthy of the person to whom it is addressed, and the place which it has celebrated,

— 'Islingtonia's village, much-lov'd place!

Which strikes th' admiring eye with many a grace.'

The inhabitants of Canonbury-house, will, we doubt not, frequently repeat the following most delightful description.

'There the frequented Canonbury stands,

The venerable work of monkish hands;

Close by its spacious park, with water clear,

Behold a beautiful canal appear!

Not far from thence fair Highb'ry's Barn is plac'd,

Near where the Roman gen'ral's camp's still trac'd;

From whence, since him, (as vulgar tales report)

Rebellious Straw hurl'd vengeance at the court:

This spot commands an advantageous view

Of Highgate's hills, and those of Hampstead too.'

Our egregious bard has not forgot,

—— — — 'those much-resorted fields,

Where the White-conduit every dainty yields;'

nor does he dwell with less poetical rapture on

—— — — the 'beauties that are seen,

In Newington, in Stroud, or Kingsland Green?'

Whither, if our readers have a mind to accompany the poet, we wish them a pleasant walk, and a great deal of diversion.

Art. 21. *The Temple of Venus. Part the Second. 4to. Pr. 1s. 6d. Moran.*

Part the second of this poem is like part the first, a luscious and obscene description of the debaucheries and shameful vices of this debauched town: the author, whoever he is, is by no means a contemptible poet, but, like a second Aretine, has drawn very good pictures, which, for their looseness and indecency, should be thrown into the fire.

Art. 22. *Love at First Sight: A Ballad Farce, of two Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal in Drury-Lane. 8vo. Pr. 1s. Becket and De Hondt.*

The author speaks so humbly of this piece himself, that it would be rather cruel to treat it with much rigour, though we cannot



cannot bestow on it much commendation. It has, however, like many other *ballad* farces, a species of composition for which we have no great veneration, been tolerably received in the representation: and, indeed, if *Love in a Village* is to engross almost the sole possession of the theatre for two seasons, *Love at First Sight* may reasonably claim the indulgence of a few nights. There is a pert flippancy in the dialogue, and a hasty succession of farcical changes in the plot, which make the piece run off lightly in the representation, though not equally satisfactory in the closer. The following air may serve as a specimen of the musical part of this little drama.

‘The sun’s gay metal, shining gold,  
In many shapes is shewn;  
The form, though varied in the mould,  
The standard worth’s still known.  
So I, my fair to please and gain,  
Would many changes prove;  
Thro’ all a constant heart maintain;  
That heart should all be love.’

Art. 23. *An Account of the first Discovery, and natural History of Florida. With a particular Detail of the several Expeditions and Descents made on that Coast. Collected from the best Authorities by William Roberts. Illustrated by a general Map, and some particular Plans, together with a geographical Description of that country. By T. Jefferys, Geographer to his Majesty.* 4to. Jefferys.

This is a most seasonable publication; nor can we at this time have too much information concerning a country that has so lately become part of the British American empire. The author concludes his preface with the following hints, which places our acquisition of Florida in a very new and interesting light.

‘We are sensible that the possession of the Havannah would be always able to obstruct the return of the rich Spanish fleets home to Europe, with treasure from Peru and Mexico, which, without doubt, was one concurring reason for the late conquest of Cuba: but, as it has been again given up by the late treaty, it remains to be considered, whether the coast of Florida may not be made, in a great measure, as distressful to them, on such occasions, as that of Cuba? With regard to the meer direction of the land, it should seem not to be less suited to this purpose, because these Spanish ships are obliged to fetch a compass as close under it as they can, in order to get a wind large enough to carry them sufficiently eastward to fall down upon Cuba, where there is a general junction made of their several fleets bound to Europe, after which they sail together through the straits of Bahama. On the eastern side of Florida, which,

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with the range of the Bahama-islands, forms these straits, we, as yet, know of no harbours of any value, not at all suited to receive ships of force; and, therefore, it seems by no means calculated for the use of intercepting the Spanish treasures; but, on the western shore of this peninsula, lies the fine harbour of Spiritu del Santo, capable of holding, it is said, all the navies of Europe, and to the north-west of this, on the continent, the harbour of Pensacola is situated very safe and capacious also; both these, when properly occupied and fortified, will prove annoyances so vexatious to the Spanish settlements about the Mississippi, that it will be impossible for them to transport the treasures and products of their American dominions into Europe, in any tolerable quantity. And, was the whole chain of British provinces, from Newfoundland to the Cape of Florida, tolerably peopled, Britain would, at all times, with the assistance of its navy, be able to check and control the power of the French and Spaniards in the American world, and speedily to restore tranquillity to its own subjects in every part of the globe; for, if the sinews be cut, the limb of course must fail.'

With regard to the execution of the body of the work, we can say but little as to our own experience, because we never travelled that country; but from the geographical lights we have, many of the rivers and places are more truly laid down than they are in the French maps; and if any one will be at the pains to compare the charts of Charlevoix, Du Pratz, and others, they will find great inaccuracies, and often great discordance between what is printed and what is engraved, or, in other words, between the narrative and the map; an inconsistency we do not perceive in the work before us. The historical part must be agreeable to every British reader. The narrative and style are plain and intelligible, and keep close to the sense of the original historians. Here we may perceive how much blood and treasure the acquisition of Florida (a country which of late it has been so much the fashion to depreciate) cost the Spaniards, a people who are well acquainted with their interests.

Art. 24. *Some Hints to People in Power, on the present melancholy Situation of our Colonies in North America.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. Hinxman.

This pamphlet, which is dedicated to his majesty's principal secretaries of state, is not amiss as to its composition in some parts. The author thinks that our retaining Canada was a right measure, and that there are two methods of remedying the present melancholy situation of our colonies; the one, by rendering the Indians dependent upon us; the other, by conciliating their affections to us. The former, he thinks, would



not only effectually remove the disorder, but prevent all possibility of its return. The latter will be but a temporary relief. The author then talks about dispossessing the French from both sides of the Mississippi, and then his pamphlet degenerates into poor personal panegyric and malignant sneers. His hero seems to be general Amherst, whom undoubtedly he cannot compliment too much, and then he endeavours to *grin horribly a ghastly smile* upon the characters of other gentlemen and governors in America, by giving them the very reverse of those characters which he insinuates to the public they deserve.

Art. 25. *The Anatomy of a late Negotiation. Earnestly addressed to the serious Consideration of the People of Great Britain.* 4to. Pr. 1s. Wilkie.

This author endeavours to shew that the spirit of the present opposition is destructive to that of liberty. Thus far in general terms; which every reader of sense will consider as words of course in a political controversy. He then becomes a little more particular. 'Will, says he, the dukes of N——le or D——e pretend, that they entered into opposition with any one public plea, or with any views but to remove from the person of the k—— the object of their jealousy, and to reinstate themselves in their former power? Is that a consideration that will justify them, or any of their party, in their conduct towards the public? May we not fairly deem persons actuated by such principles, the authors of faction, not the supporters of liberty; the enemies, not the friends to their country?'

The addresser then considers the propriety of Mr. P——'s conduct, and with great spirit and freedom reproaches him and his party with having been willing to sacrifice their 'resentments to their interests, and privately enter into terms of accommodation with every person, to restore to him the influence he had renounced, make use of that very influence to re-instate themselves and the adherents in power and in office; if we should see them make use of the peace they had decried, as a pretence to extend their proscription, and in the same manner consent to restore C——t influence to the man who boasted himself the adviser of that peace, and stipulate the highest office to one of the principal defenders of it?

'Are these things so, my countrymen? do I attempt to impose upon your judgments; or do they attempt to impose upon the confidence you have reposed in their professions? Is it true or false that the dukes of N——le and D—— were publicly known to have approved and recommended peace upon any terms, which they afterwards opposed, when obtained upon much more advantageous terms than they had themselves consented to accept.'

In short, if the fact is true, and we have not heard it either authentically or unauthentically denied, that the rope of coalition was twisted at different ends, and that Mr. P. and his friends were willing to have coalesced with lord B. in displacing the present administration, the reader will find in this pamphlet strictures that open an unbounded field of curiosity, amazement, and speculation. As to the pamphlet itself, the manner in which it is written is so masterly, that it is not beneath the notice of the greatest man it attacks, because it proceeds upon facts, which, if they are false, may be invalidated by one dash of a pen, and our author's severe strictures upon them must vanish into smoke.

Art. 26. *The humble Address of the People of Great Britain to his Majesty.* 8vo. Pr. 6d. Henderson.

This is a foolish hackneyed remonstrance against the late peace, very sordidly penned; intending only to inflame the public discontents, by insinuations which are now thread-bare and contemptible.

Art. 27. *Considerations on the prevailing Spirit and Temper of the present Times. In a Letter to the Scots Nation.* 8vo. Pr. 4d. Sandby.

Ptisan and water-gruel are, on many occasions, extremely serviceable to invalids; but a good physician would not always wholly trust to them for the recovery of a patient in a delirious fever. This pamphlet is wrote with great decency and disinterestedness. It is even immoderately moderate, and points out with calmness both the causes and the remedy of our present political malady. We most heartily wish that the *flamina* of the public understanding and morals may be so vigorous as to be cured, or at least corrected, by this lenient prescription.

Art. 28. *A Letter to the Rev. the New Elected Lecturers of St. M——y W——c——l: Containing some Hints of the greatest Importance; in which the Interest of all the Lecturers in London, &c. are greatly concerned. Earnestly recommended to the Perusal of the Clergy and Laity of the Church of England. To which is added an Appendix, addressed to the Subscribers to the Evening Lectures of St. Swithen's, London Stone; St. Ann's, Alder-gate; St. James's, Duke's Place, &c. &c. By J. S——, Esq; 8vo. Pr. 6d. Keith.*

This is a pious and well-meant letter, if it has no foundation in disappointment or private pique; and we wish it may have a suitable effect upon the parties to whom it is addressed.

